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ABSTRACT

Twelve articles on current and projected trends in the teaching of foreign language in elementary schools (FLES) focus on four major areas of concern. A look at the present state of FLES instruction includes articles on programs in various parts of the world, the potential of FLES, and teacher preparation. Two articles on innovations and school facilities and programed instruction focus on the impact of technological advances. A section on bilingualism includes an article on ethnic groups and language maintenance. The last group of articles predicts directions which sequential programs are likely to take and the potential use of media for purposes of instruction. (This document previously announced as ED 052 644.) (RL)

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A Report by THE FLES COMMITTEE of the

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

OF TEACHERS

OF FRENCH

FLES:
PROJECTIONS INTO THE FUTURE

Gladys C. Lipton, Editor

Presented

November 29, 1968

Boston, Massachusetts

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A REPORT BY THE
FLES COMMITTEE
OF THE
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF
TEACHERS OF FRENCH

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Presented
November 29, 1968
Boston, Massachusetts

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Preface	E. Bourque	iii
Introduction	E. Bourque	v
I. A Look at the Present	G. Lipton	1
A. FLES in Various Parts of the World..	V. Spaar	3
B. Fulfilling the Potential of FLES ...	R. Lewis	23
C. Preparation for FLES	B. Ratté	37
II. The Impact of Technological Advances on FLES	G. Lipton	53
A. Innovations and School Facilities ..	J. Arendt	55
B. Programmed Instruction	V. Spaar	81
III. Bilingualism in Present and Future Education	G. Lipton	93
A. Experiences in Bilingualism	V. Spaar	95
B. In the Literature	C. Fisher	109
C. Ethnic Groups and Language Maintenance	R. Pillet	121
IV. What is There to be Seen in the Crystal Ball?	G. Lipton	129
A. The Sequence--Kindergarten Through College	Homer Dyess & R. Kastner	131
B. Perception and Media re: McLuhan ..	V. Gramer	139
C. Wednesday, 10:00 A.M., 1987	P. Aspel	153
Conclusion	E. Bourque	169
The FLES Committee of the AATF, 1968		173
Past Chairmen		175

PREFACE

It was in 1960 that the National FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School) Committee of the American Association of Teachers of French became a permanent working committee of the national organization. As a result, every year since 1960 this committee has submitted a report at the Annual Meeting of the Association. In these annual reports the following topics have been discussed:

1961: The Supply, Qualifications, and Training of Teachers of FLES

1962: Language Structures at FLES Level, Including Testing for Mastery of Structures[1]

1963: The Correlation of a Long Language Sequence Beginning in the Elementary School[1]

1964: Reading at the FLES Level[1]

1965: Culture in the FLES Program[2]

1966: FLES and the Objectives of the Contemporary Elementary Schools[2]

1967: The FLES Student: A Study[2]

The 1968 Committee Report, FLES: Projections into the Future is devoted for the most part to what is ahead in the years to come for FLES programs throughout America. The report is also a look into the present to see how far FLES programs have progressed since that statement in 1952 by the then Commissioner of Education, Earl McGrath. The compilation of papers in the report and the different aspects of FLES will interest specialists in this field, such as the teachers, the university personnel involved in the training of specialists for elementary programs in foreign languages, and the publishers of materials to conduct such programs.

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[1] Available from National Information Bureau, 972 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

[2] Available from Chilton Books, 401 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Each year the committee reorganizes after presenting its report at the Annual Meeting of the AATF. It was in Miami, site of the 1967 Annual Meeting of this organization, that the committee met and expressed concern for the future of FLES programs. It was with this concern in mind that the 1968 Committee with its co-chairmen devised an outline that would serve as a guide to study the present situation and try to project into the decades ahead what kinds of FLES programs could be expected.

The Committee wishes to express sincere appreciation to the administrative officers and the executive board of the American Association of Teachers of French for their continued interest in this annual project. The Co-Chairmen wish to thank Miss Mary-Jo Dzurik, of the Fairfield Board of Education, for the many hours spent typing and proofreading this final report. Acknowledgements are also due to the print shop at Fairfield University for the printing of the 1968 report.

Edward H. Bourque Fairfield, Connecticut	Dr. Gladys Lipton New York, New York

INTRODUCTION

As FLES programs are projected into the future, there must also be some thought given to past and present history. In a recent article in one of the professional journals[1] the steady progress of foreign language programs in the large cities is noteworthy. As we look back on the progress made, it is notable that FLES is tackling the problems that it is encountering. In large measure, this is due to the encouragement, support, and belief in such programs by parents, local boards of education, administrators and teachers. All these forces engaged in a common effort will assure the ultimate success of FLES programs. Persons involved in foreign language learning will continue to proffer opinions relative to an early beginning in a second language. Regardless of the opposition experienced in many situations, these same experts will continue to emphasize and demonstrate the values to be drawn from an early experience. For some time, FLES programs have moved away from the novelty of an experience with strange sounds, from the games, dances, and songs that were so much a part of early FLES programs. Learning a second language is serious business, and it should always be considered in these terms. School systems which have had FLES programs for a number of years are now beginning to feel the effects of such programs in the competency that has been achieved by high school students in the final two years of secondary education.

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[1] Gradisnik, Anthony, A Survey of FLES Instruction in Cities over 300,000, Foreign Language Annals, Volume Two, number one. October, 1968.

Programs, then, that do begin at the elementary level must be assured of the continuity that will produce these desired effects.

The discussions presented in the eighth annual report reflect the thinking of experts in FLES on the situation as it has been and as it might appear in future decades. Some of the reflections will be considered as "impossible dreams," but so was FLES in retrospect. The report on FLES programs in different parts of the world will certainly provoke new thinking. A plea for the effective preparation of the FLES specialist is forever valid. A section of the report has been devoted to bilingualism since this aspect of language will continue to be a subject of much discussion. Innovations are also treated in relation to the impact that these can have on foreign language learning, now and in the future. It is a matter of fact now that the world, because of modern means of transportation has become more accessible from the point of view of travel. This being the case, FLES programs must adapt modern technology to achieve better and faster communication. The report concludes with a discussion of an ideal sequence and the happenings in a FLES classroom not too many decades away. Also included are reflections on the media and the effects of same on language learning.

It is the hope of the FLES Committee of 1968 that this report will serve as encouragement for future planning in FLES programs and as proof of the validity of early beginning in a second language. It is also hoped that someday we can look back on what was a dream to discover that the dream is now reality.

Section I

A LOOK AT THE PRESENT

In order to view the full scope of FLES, it must be remembered that programs on the elementary school level exist on a broad scale outside the United States. The first essay deals with the status of teaching a foreign language to young children in various parts of the world.

In recognition of this age of increased community participation and interest, the second report develops practical and specific plans for improving school-community cooperation in order to achieve better understanding of the goals of FLES. This could well be a blueprint for assisting educational leaders to develop community support for FLES.

The future status of FLES will be secure with respect to teaching personnel only if the groundwork is laid now for the training and recruitment of FLES teachers. The third article presents practical guidelines for forward-thinking institutions of higher education to meet the demand for competent, well-trained, enthusiastic teachers of FLES.

G. L.

FLES IN THE SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN VARIOUS PARTS OF THE WORLD

Americans are in the habit of believing themselves unique in their problems with learning and teaching foreign languages. It may be somewhat surprising, therefore, to learn that there is as much dissatisfaction with the general inadequacy of foreign language teaching beyond our borders as there is within. At international conferences in Hamburg, Berlin and Geneva during the present decade, experts on language learning and language teaching[1] have underscored the common problems, the widespread concern over many current practices and the great need for research on the language learning and language teaching processes. The present study focusses upon one aspect, but a very important one, of the current state of foreign language teaching in school systems in various parts of the globe.

Even a relatively superficial inquiry into worldwide practices and trends in language teaching seems to suggest that in virtually every inhabited corner of the earth the teaching of foreign languages to children of primary school age is a subject of immediate importance. Reasons for an early start with language study vary from country to country, but the reasons are predominantly practical ones. Each country's interest in the teaching of foreign languages to young children is prompted by the need for citizens who are able to use another language for direct communication. The need is coupled with a recognition of the fact that most people whose initial experience with a foreign language was at the secondary school level or later have not seemed able to attain a level of proficiency to permit spontaneous communication in any of the language skills.

The goals of foreign language study in any given country are determined, to a very great extent, by the language or languages spoken by the inhabitants within its borders. In countries whose predominant language or languages are spoken by only a relatively small number of people in the world, the acquisition of a language of world currency provides an access to scientific and technological information as well as opportunities for higher and broader education for its people, all advantages inaccessible otherwise. Very often these same countries are faced with the enormous problem of a staggering multiplicity of languages. In these cases, the need for a common language is urgent, not only to settle the problem of internal communication generally, but also to provide for a medium of instruction in the schools.

On the other hand, in countries where at least one of two or three official languages is a language of international usage the need for an access to the outside world is less acute and the goal of foreign language study tends to be less directly utilitarian. The lack of skill in communicating in a second language, in the past at least, has been less likely to be a handicap either economically or educationally when the mother tongue was one of world currency. This advantage, however, seems likely to turn to disadvantage in the future. The growing need for and an inevitable increase in cross-cultural communication will make a liability of monolingualism and monoculturalism, whether or not the language is in international use.

Because children in the countries of Africa come from a multiplicity of language backgrounds, there is scarcely a choice to be made about the advisability or inadvisability of introducing the study of a second language at the point, or almost at the point of entry into the school experience. The necessity for establishing as quickly as possible a common medium of instruction must take precedence over considerations concerning the child himself. Finding an adequate number of teachers able to provide instruction even in the official languages presents enough of a problem. Any attempt to provide minimally competent instruction in all of the various languages would be futile, even if desirable. But such a policy would not be desirable from two points of view. First, it is the hope of government leaders in most of these nations that through schooling in the official language, greater social cohesion among the various linguistic groups will eventually result. Secondly, instructional materials are both scarce and costly. Even if for financial reasons only, it would be utterly impossible to develop and produce a sufficient range of instructional materials for all of the native languages. In many cases, writing systems have yet to be devised for the languages.

Attempts are made to use the vernacular for the children's initial school experience when a native language is one of the more widely spoken ones for which a writing system has been developed. In Nigeria, for example, in the Yoruba-speaking Western regions, the language of instruction until the third term of the first year is Yoruba. In the third term English is introduced for one hour a week. Gradually, the time is increased to five hours per week in the third and fourth years. From the fifth year of schooling onward, all instruction is in English. The continued heavy emphasis upon English and French in many of the African nations, despite the struggle for self-identity, arises from the need of one of the two languages for higher employment or education and for communication with countries in a position to lend aid in economic development.

The educational problems of many of the countries of Central Europe and Asia bear some similarity to those of Africa. India, with its 845 major languages and dialects, is an often cited example of a nation beset with problems owing to the multiplicity of languages. Less often is it realized that the Soviet Union, too, has had to contend with the difficulties of educating its people in sixty-six different languages. From its former position of active support for education in the local vernacular, the Soviet government has moved increasingly toward encouraging the widespread study of Russian as at least the second language throughout the USSR. At present initial primary instruction is still offered in the local language; but after the first four grades, and in some cases after the first two, Russian becomes the exclusive medium of instruction. A lengthening of the compulsory period of schooling from four years in the 1920's to eight years finally in 1959 has increased the difficulties in staffing schools with teachers capable of giving competent instruction in the vernaculars. Furthermore, for the Soviet child who aspires to higher education or employment, a knowledge of Russian becomes a practical necessity, since Russian is the medium of instruction in institutions of higher education. The teaching of Russian as a second language to children of the Soviet Union is a problem of major importance.

The Soviet attitude toward the study of foreign languages has also undergone considerable modification since the early 1930's when the goals of foreign language training were to produce translators of scientific and technical materials and to impart a fuller understanding of the history and structure of the Russian language. In the traditional curriculum of Soviet schools, the study of a foreign language begins in Class VI at age twelve or thirteen. A perusal of articles on the subject of the teaching of foreign languages in the Soviet Union over the past ten to twelve years reveals a good deal of dissatisfaction and criticism. Observers within Russia, as well as visitors from the outside, have criticized poor teaching methods, inadequately prepared teachers (very few Soviet language teachers ever have the opportunity to spend time in the country whose language they teach), old-fashioned textbooks, lack of audio-visual material and large classes.

The Soviet government has been neither unaware nor uncaring about the state of language teaching in its schools. As far back as 1948 an experiment was launched in which a number of Ten-Year Schools were designated to specialize in the teaching of one foreign language. Each school, specializing in one language, introduces the language in Class II at age eight. A significant feature of these schools is that as the children's mastery of the foreign language grows, the foreign language is used increasingly as the medium of instruction in other subject matter. The first of these schools were established in Moscow and specialized in English, French or German. From all reports it appears that the quality of instruction in these schools is laudable and that there are waiting lists of parents who are anxious to have their children attend one of the schools. The number of such schools is increasing in the large cities and other languages are being included such as Arabic, Chinese and Hindu. The lack of qualified teachers at all levels, but particularly at the elementary school level, seems to be the main factor preventing a more rapid spread of these schools.

Multilingual populations present similar educational problems in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Afghanistan. In these nations too, primary education in the mother tongue is begun as the children undertake the study of the State language in the early grades. In Afghanistan there are two State languages, Pashto and Persian, so that a child brought up in a home in which one of the twenty-eight other languages is spoken must learn both at school. In addition, everyone must learn Arabic for the purpose of reading the Koran. As if this were not enough, children who reach the seventh grade are required to begin the study of English, French or German. Since this is the point of entry into secondary education the choice of a language is tied to the selection of the course of study. The child who chooses medical studies enrolls at the French-medium school; scientific studies are pursued at the German-medium school and courses in agriculture and engineering are given at the

English-medium school.

Other countries of Central and Eastern Europe have initiated modest experiments in the teaching of foreign languages to young children. In Bulgaria, Russian is being taught in one nursery school for children aged three to seven. In Hungary, after a rather haphazard and unsuccessful approach to the teaching of foreign languages in Grades III and IV in the period immediately following World War II, a committee has been formed to work out a plan for the teaching of foreign languages in primary schools. Each school, as in Russia, will offer one major language, Russian, English or French.

Western European nations have far fewer problems with multilingual populations, even in countries where there are two or more official languages. It is interesting to note in passing that although the language of the majority of Luxenbourgeois is a Germanic dialect, the official language of the country is French. Since the majority language is not considered very useful, two foreign languages are included in the common branch studies of the primary school.

In general, the presence of speakers of two or more languages within the borders of a single nation seems to be a great deal less problematic when one of the languages at least is a language of international currency. In Belgium where both Flemish and French are official languages, the former is the language of the majority (60%). Notwithstanding French, being a language of world currency, is likely to be learned by a speaker of Flemish, while far fewer French speakers in Belgium learn Flemish. In neither the Flemish-speaking region nor the French-speaking region is the teaching of the second national language compulsory. Although the Belgian educational system is centrally controlled, the Language Laws of 1962 divided the country, making Flemish the sole medium of instruction in the schools of the north, and French the sole medium of instruction for the schools of the south. Only in the areas near Brussels is the teaching of both languages compulsory. There, beginning in the second year of elementary school, the prescribed curriculum includes three hours of instruction per week in the second national language. Apart from the two national languages no other language may be taught in the elementary schools of Belgium. Beyond the basic elementary certificate for elementary school teachers there are no special qualifications for teachers of languages in these schools. For many years the teaching of the second national language in the elementary schools has been criticized as "too theoretical and literary."

In Switzerland, with its four official languages, there has been no attempt to establish language boundaries. Each language has been permitted where it is preferred. Speakers of Romansh, however, (the only one of the four which is not an international language) are taught in the vernacular in the first six grades only, after which German becomes the medium of instruction. In order to make this transfer possible, children for whom the native tongue is Romansh begin the study of German in the fourth year of schooling. In the upper primary grades of many schools, a second national language is required for gifted children. A third language, usually English, is optional. In secondary schools, children continue the study of the language begun in primary school and have the opportunity to begin others.

Norway and Sweden have made English compulsory for all children from the fourth or fifth grade. In Norwegian schools, English has been a required subject for the last two years of elementary school (fifth and sixth grades) since 1935. Because of a shortage of teachers, schools have not always been able to meet this requirement. Since many teachers were recruited from the upper levels, the aims and methods of instruction have often been patterned after those of the secondary school where a heavy emphasis upon written work and grammar have been usual. Other problems with foreign language instruction in the elementary schools have continued to present themselves recurrently. The lack of graded readers has made impossible a smooth transition from elementary school English with its 700 word vocabulary level, to the high school text requiring a knowledge of close to 2,000 words. In areas where a consolidated secondary school draws pupils from several communities, pupils arrive with varying amounts of preparation in English, some none. Following the passage of the Law on Experiments of 1954, the Council on Experiments established research projects in the teaching of English in various schools throughout the country. One of the aims was to develop a suitable English course for all pupils; it was felt that English was essential for certain jobs and other opportunities. Even with the revised course, however, it was discovered that children with an I. Q. of 90 stood only about a 50 per cent chance of success.

The study of English is compulsory from the fourth year in Sweden's new nine-year basic school. For a brief period, beginning in 1957, the Swedish Board of Education conducted an experiment in four classes in each of four schools of Stockholm. Following the original eight-week experiment using recordings and filmstrips for fifteen-minute lessons three times a week, the project was extended to a total of forty classes from the first to the fourth grades in seven different schools throughout Sweden. Two years later, support was withdrawn from the project, presumably because it was felt that there was no particular advantage in a start earlier than the prescribed fourth grade level.

Foreign language study becomes optional or compulsory at the fifth-year level in the Federal Republic of West Germany, depending upon the school in which a child enrolls. In both the Oberschule and Mittelschule, English is required in the fifth year; at the Volksschule it is optional. Even in the latter, capable students are often automatically placed in English classes. If at any point the teacher in the Volksschule finds that the student's work in English is not up to passing standard, the teacher can recommend that the student be dropped from the course.

In the Netherlands, foreign languages are only officially begun in the secondary schools; but during the children's last two years of primary schooling, French courses are often privately arranged by the heads of primary schools and parents. The alleged reason for these courses is to lighten the child's academic load when he will begin the study of two foreign languages upon entry into the secondary school. Since a knowledge of French is highly esteemed in the Netherlands, there seems to be little doubt that a desire for social status also enters into the willingness on the part of parents to finance such courses. The practice, although illegal, is fairly widespread. The courses are given in regular schoolrooms either before or after school hours during two forty-five minute periods a week. Reports of the quality of teaching are very critical

Up to the present, French interest in the teaching of foreign languages to young children appears to have been directed more toward the problems and production of materials for the teaching of French overseas than to the teaching of foreign languages to French children within France. Although experiments with the teaching of English to children in the *cours élémentaire* (seven- and eight-year-olds) and in the *cours moyen* (ten-and eleven-year-olds) were begun in 1959 in Paris and its suburbs, there does not appear to be any inclination toward expanding the study or introducing the study of foreign languages on a wider scale in the primary schools. The traditional starting point for foreign languages in French government schools is in the secondary schools at age ten or eleven.

At a time when people in various parts of the world are making an unprecedented effort to learn English, it is fitting that the English-speaking countries should be making an equal, if not greater effort to extend and improve the teaching of other languages to its young. The governments of Great Britain, Canada and the United States, joined by the educators and large segments of the general population of these three nations, have urged and strongly supported experimental programs for the teaching of foreign languages to children. In all three countries, large minority groups of speakers of other languages are present. Recent efforts to encourage, cultivate and preserve these linguistic resources are being rewarded by an increase in the worth of other language speakers to themselves and to society. While there are similarities in fundamental problems and trends within the three nations, differences upon closer scrutiny are marked.

The British Ministry of Education granted official approval to foreign language programs in the primary schools in 1956. At that time the Ministry expressed more caution than encouragement for their initiation. It was not until a locally planned and executed experiment in Leeds produced some impressive results with ten-and eleven-year-old children that the interest of the Ministry was sufficiently stirred to formulate a country-wide project. In 1963, the year after the Leeds experiment, the Ministry announced a pilot scheme to be put into operation in September of 1964 and to continue until July 1969. Thirteen school districts representing various geographical locations, urban and rural settings, depressed and affluent areas, are participating officially in the experiment; but a number of other areas showing interest have become associated with the experiment in one way or another. Some of these associated areas serve as preliminary testing grounds for materials; others are afforded the opportunity to receive the materials after testing and revisions. These schools are invited to share their findings. Schools participating officially in the experiment are not required to use the materials that are being specifically prepared by the Nuffield Foundation, although one hundred of the one hundred twenty schools have elected to do so.

Britain is no better off than other countries as far as the shortage of teachers is concerned. In undertaking this project, some thought had to be given to the source of supply for an adequate number of qualified teachers to carry out the investigation. The teachers that were chosen were all trained and experienced primary classroom teachers, but they were not foreign language specialists. A condition to their being accepted was that they would agree to prolonged intensive preparation in French. The training program for the first teachers began one year prior to the introduction of the program into the schools. For two evenings a week for a seven to eight month period, the teachers attended French classes at technical colleges equipped with language laboratories. This was followed by a full-time course of approximately three months at either the Institut Britannique in Paris or at the Centre de Linguistique Appliquée in Besançon. Finally, in a ten-day course in England the teachers were taught methods of teaching foreign languages to young children. In addition, they took more French classes at local colleges. This training program will continue for new teachers through the investigation period, since the need for additional teachers grows with each new group of eight-year-olds in the schools. A third training center for the three-month full-time program has more recently been opened in England at Holborn College of Law, Languages and Commerce.

Canada is officially a bilingual nation. Despite that fact, the attitudes and approaches toward foreign language study have paralleled those in our country. In the past the teaching of foreign languages has been confined to the secondary schools with emphasis on reading, grammar and translation. A statement in a report issued by the Second Language Committee of Ontario has a familiar ring: "Regarding a second (or third or fourth) language and literature, many Canadians have far too long lived shrouded in complacency and frequently wrapped in bigotry. Now we are being forced out of our isolation and linguistic invalidism by the realities of a shrinking, independent world and by a vital challenge to the very existence of our country."[1]

The organization of the Canadian school system resembles that of the United States. For this reason, experimentation is more likely to be conducted at the level of local school districts or by provincial boards of education and universities, rather than planned on a nation-wide basis. Scattered reports on experimental studies in FLES emanate from various parts of Canada. The preponderance of reports, it seems, originate in Ontario where the Research Department of the Toronto Board of Education has been conducting systematic studies and publishing bulletins.

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[1] French as a Second Language, an Interim Report of the Second Language Committee, Ontario Curriculum Institute, p. 6.

Practices in the teaching of English as a second language have been getting some much needed attention. In French-medium primary schools, aural-oral instruction in English is begun in Grade II; but in Grades III and IV the emphasis on reading and writing rapidly crowds out further development of oral skills. The French-speaking child is pushed through work on phonics, pre-primers and graded readers so that he can "catch-up" with his English speaking counterpart by Grade VIII. The time allotted to English lessons in Grade II varies with the children's knowledge of English. From Grade III on time allotment is stipulated and gradually increases through the grades. From twenty minutes daily in the first term of Grade III, the lessons are lengthened to thirty-five minutes per day in the second term, then to forty minutes in Grade IV, seventy minutes in Grades V and VI, and seventy-five minutes in Grades VII and VIII. (In English-language schools ninety minutes per day are allotted to English from Grades I through VIII.) French as a language of instruction is limited to the elementary grades. If, in the local school system, Grades IX and X are integrated with the elementary system, French is permitted in these grades. At the end of Grade XIII French-speaking and English-speaking students pass the same examinations. This program, having been in existence for some forty years, is now being reviewed and revisions proposed.

American schools are not alone with their problems of building the language programs of the future. Shortages of teachers, the need for teachers with better linguistic and pedagogical training, the lack of proper materials and a carefully devised syllabus coordinated with that of the secondary school, large classes, decisions about which languages to teach are problems shared by school systems the world over. In spite of the many shortcomings and handicaps of the developmental stages, some of our own school systems have already built effect FLES programs. Failures of experimental programs both here and abroad have not submerged efforts to reorganize and try again with new knowledge born of the experience. An education explosion has created a world-wide demand for quantity and quality; neither is possible without the medium of language. The student's mastery of a second learning medium is a key to both quantity and quality in his education. When skillfully taught, it is the children who possess the greatest potential for breaking through this language barrier that separates men from greater knowledge and each other.

Dr. Virginia L. Spaar
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FULFILLING THE POTENTIAL OF FLES

In this age of instant pudding and painless dentistry, many American parents have anxiously awaited the sudden and fun-filled transformation of their "Flesling"[1] into an accomplished linguist. Although there has been some disenchantment, the problem lies not with the FLES idea, but with the execution, literally and figuratively, of the program and the misconceptions about what FLES can accomplish.

Several successful programs, however, have demonstrated conclusively that a FLES program is well worth the time and money if carefully planned and effectively implemented. In an article entitled, "High School Performance of FLES and Non-FLES Students," authors Evelyn Brega and John M. Newell report on their study of language students in Lexington High School in Massachusetts: "The superior performance by the FLES group is interpreted as evidence that this type of program produces higher levels of achievement over and above differences in instructor and differences in I. Q."[2] In a similar study in Buffalo, New York, Joseph M. Vocolo found that the "results obtained indicate significant superiority for the FLES group in listening, speaking, and writing.

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[1] Title of "A Newsletter for Foreign Language Teachers in the Elementary School," The Indiana Language Program.

[2] Evelyn Brega and John M. Newell, "Performance of FLES and Non-FLES Students," MLA Journal, Vol. LI, Number 7, Nov. 1967, pp. 410-411.

No significant difference between groups is indicated in reading."[3] Successful results were also reported recently in both language achievement and pupil attitudes in a study involving pupils in the Fairfield Public Schools.[4]

Policy statements on FLES presented by the MLA in 1957 and 1961 set forth guidelines which, if followed, assure a successful language program. The question has now become one of enlisting (and in many cases re-enlisting) the support of educators, legislators, and the public in a concerted effort to establish and maintain effective FLES programs in our nation's schools. This task is going to require a great deal of initiative and work on the part of every individual presently involved in language teaching. Teachers should not expect professional organizations such as the MLA or NEA to correct local difficulties. These organizations are fulfilling their roles in doing research and providing guidelines, methods, materials, and counseling. GAINING SUPPORT FOR FLES AND IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM ARE THE RESPONSIBILITY OF LOCAL TEACHERS.

The guidelines for FLES programs, as presented in this paper may be valid for existing FLES programs in need of reappraisal and renovation as well as for programs being introduced in a school system for the first time. It is not a simple formula for immediate and easy success, but rather a systematic progression of steps necessary to the realization of an effective FLES program and its subsequent re-evaluation and acceptance by the community. The time and energy required to execute these steps may seem prohibitive at first, but only well-directed effort in the beginning will establish community acceptance of FLES programs.

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[3] Joseph M. Vocolo, "The Effect of Foreign Language Study in the Elementary School Upon Achievement in the Same Foreign Language in the High School," MLA Journal, Vol. LI, Number 8, Dec. 1967, p. 469.

[4] FLES Evaluation: Language skills and pupil attitudes in the Fairfield Connecticut Public Schools, Connecticut State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 106, 1968.

The initial step in the program should be taken by the director or supervisor of foreign languages during a meeting of the system's language instructors. (Teachers of all language levels must be involved in FLES to assure an effective sequence of language study.) The director or supervisor should form a committee to evaluate the existing FLES program, or to consider the introduction of FLES into the system. (For an example and discussion of an evaluation questionnaire, see the January, 1968 issue of The Modern Language Journal, Volume L II, Number 1, pp. 16-23.) Realistic objectives based on the findings of this evaluation and/or on currently successful programs should be drawn up for the new FLES endeavor. These objectives should then serve as the guidelines for a detailed plan of implementation which will be presented to principals and superintendents. (See the 1957 and 1961 MLA Policy Statements containing the minimum requirements for a successful program.)

A major portion of this presentation should be a carefully conceived rationale for FLES. This might include the following basic reasons:

A. Educational Factors

We know now that language learning is the acquiring of a new set of speech habits....Now we know that to be able to speak we must develop the habits of handling the structures of the foreign language, of thinking and speaking in that language, of using the intonation and pronunciation habits of that language. This is not a task that can be done in two years or even three or four. It takes time.[5]

B. Neurological Factors

"In 1953 Dr. Wilder Penfield, Director of the Montreal Neurological Institute, gave an address before the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He said:

> The physiological development of the organ of the mind causes it to specialize in the learning of language before the ages of ten to fourteen. After that, gradually, inevitably, it seems to become rigid, slow, less receptive in this particular function, as it becomes ready for reasoning and abstract thinking. One who is mindful of the changing physiology of the human brain might marvel at educational curricula. Why should foreign languages....make their first appearance long after a boy or girl has lost full capacity for language learning?

C. Psychological Factors

It is at this age that the children are most fascinated with new words and new sounds. They are anxious to try them out and have none of the self-consciousness or fear of making a mistake that comes with adolescence. Language is taught by imitation and it is during his first ten years that the child is best able to learn by imitation. At about the age of eleven or twelve, they begin to become more eye-oriented and lose the ability so vital to good pronunciation of learning by listening. Furthermore, children who are unsuccessful in other subject areas can often succeed in foreign language study which does not depend upon their reading skill. In fact, it has been shown that the slower students will sometimes excel the brighter ones.[6]

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[5] FLES Conference held at Purdue University, LaFayette, Indiana. April 7, 1967.

D. Sociological Factors

Language and culture are inextricably woven together, and a comprehension of one without the other is impossible.

Language and culture should be taught together. Through this instruction we gain tolerance and understanding of one another's point of view, another system of logical reasoning, and another texture of civilization. Even where this insight does not lead to acceptance or agreement, at least it gives us the knowledge necessary for an understanding of the other culture and its members.[7]

Upon receiving administrative approval, the FLES program is ready for presentation (1) to the rest of the school community, and (2) to the public.

The committee should furnish all teachers with a comprehensive pamphlet explaining the local FLES program, and in addition, a special meeting should be called of the elementary personnel who will have students participating in FLES. It is imperative that a well-reasoned and practicable rationale for FLES be presented at that time in order to counter the possibility of negative attitudes created by the crowded curriculum of the elementary school and the pressure placed on teachers to teach more effectively.

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[6] From an unsigned article distributed at the April 7, 1968, FLES Conference held at Purdue University, LaFayette, Indiana.

[7] Edward M. Stack, The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching, Oxford University Press, 1960.

Special emphasis should be placed on the idea of using language as a means of developing understanding and acceptance of other cultures. "Childhood is the best time to acquire the beginnings of goodwill and intercultural understanding. Children are singularly free of prejudice, and enjoyable classroom or out-of-class experiences which familiarize them with the customs or mores of another country create lasting impressions. Concomitant outcomes of their language study are the appreciation of the basic oneness of all mankind and the realization that differences between peoples do not signify either superiority or inferiority."[8]

Special emphasis, also, should be placed on the motivational stimulus afforded by language when used to relate the diverse areas of the curriculum. (Imaginative suggestions in this connection can be found in Mary Finocchiaro's book, Teaching Children Foreign Languages, McGraw Hill, 1964, pp. 133-134.) Whenever possible, concrete ideas should accompany abstract principles, to assure their understanding and acceptance.

When the FLES committee feels that the teachers and administration understand the proposed FLES programs and are ready to give it their enthusiastic support, attention should be turned to educating the public. What is the school's obligation in this respect? "As a social institution, owned and operated by the people, the school depends for its continuance and support upon the status of public opinion."[9] The school must, therefore, operate in accord with the wishes of the majority. There are several implications attached to this principle which should be examined:

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[8] Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching Children Foreign Languages, Copyright 1964, by McGraw Hill, Inc., p. 5.

1. Enlightened public opinion cannot be developed unless the people have full access to the facts--know what the school is trying to accomplish, how it is going about the task, how well it is succeeding, and what problems it faces.
2. The people have both the right and opportunity to an open discussion of this information in order to understand it thoroughly.
3. The people decide in the light of their knowledge and understanding what is best for children and society. Herein lies the crux of sound majority rule.[10]

Before any decision is made on how to present the FLES program to the public, there should be a comprehensive community survey taken which would concentrate upon:

1. customs and traditions,
2. population characteristics,
3. communication channels,
4. organized groups,
5. social tensions, and
6. history of community efforts.[11]

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[9] Leslie W. Kindred, School Public Relations, Prentice Hall, Inc. 1957 Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 8.

[10] Ibid., p. 15

[11] Ibid., p. 41

The results of such a survey already exist in numerous school systems where they are used to develop a smooth relationship between the school community and the public. They also can be used by individual teachers to present material in a manner especially suitable to the students' background. If a community survey has not been made by a school system, the FLES committee should ask that it be done, not only for the language program, but for the good of the entire system. It is hard to understand how any school system can determine curriculum content with only a vague notion of the community's characteristics.

After studying the profile of the community, appropriate guidelines should be drawn up indicating the types of media which would be most effective and the style of the publicity to be used. The specific plans should then be submitted to the superintendent and school board for final approval.

The various media available to the FLES committee may be divided into the following categories:

A. Newspaper Publicity

Initial stories concerning plans for the FLES program should inspire enthusiasm and a desire to follow the progress of the new language students. They should also orient the public to the fact that FLES is merely the initial step in leading the student toward lingual proficiency over a period of years. Subsequent articles should give periodic evaluations of the program and reflect vigorous and spirited activity (which includes serious work as well as games).

B. Audio-Visual Aids

School exhibits, slides and films, recordings, motion pictures, radio, television.

C. Special Events and Services

Open House (students present plays or sing songs), American Education week, special observances appropriate to the foreign culture, special awards, Career Conferences, (for information concerning careers for foreign language students, see "Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students," Gilbert C. Kettelkamp, The Modern Language Journal, Volume LI, Number 3, March, 1967, p. 135), visits by leaders, adult education (evening language courses).

D. Student Activities

Dinners featuring foreign cuisine (parents are invited), Christmas caroling in language being studied, foreign language cheering section at local sports events, participation in local parades, joint activities such as dinners with international clubs such as the Lions and Rotary, use of superior high school students as assistants in the FLES program. As a means of promoting a unified language program in the entire school system, the following high school language club project can be instituted in the elementary schools: each day a boy and girl from the FLES class are awarded the high school club pin for their superior effort in language class. They may wear the pins throughout the day and take them home that evening. The next day the same pins are again awarded to two students of the day. Mid-way through the semester, and again at the end of the semester, the high school language club hosts a party at the high school for the FLES students who have received the pin five times. FLES students can reciprocate by inviting the high school club to the elementary school to see a FLES dramatic presentation.

Perhaps the most important media for communicating the work of FLES are the students themselves. If they are to respect the program, it must be an important and official part of the curriculum, and they must feel that they will be expected to meet certain standards. The enthusiasm of these students will engender enthusiasm in their friends and younger brothers and sisters who will one day be FLES participants also. FLES students of today will be the pro (or anti-) foreign language public of tomorrow.[12]

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[12] Edward H. Bourque, ed. The FLES Student - A Study, Chilton Books, 1968.

E. Foreign Language Program Booklet

A booklet on the school system's entire language program should be published by the FLES committee. This booklet would give the objectives and methods of the program as well as a rationale for the teaching of foreign languages in the local school. Amusing and interesting articles, illustrated with photographs which show students participating in related activities or using audio-visual equipment, would communicate the students' enthusiasm for the program.

This booklet should be distributed to all teachers and placed in local libraries and in the waiting rooms of professional people in the community.

If school systems conduct programs similar to the one outlined in this paper, faith in FLES will be established. Successful programs indicated that FLES is worthy of the support of teachers, administrators, and the public. It is a teaching concept that makes it possible for many students to develop a high level of proficiency in a foreign language by the time they are graduated from high school, provided that they have followed a fully sequential and articulated program. FLES NEEDS TEACHERS WHO WILL STRIVE TO ESTABLISH OR MAINTAIN A FAVORABLE COMMUNITY ATTITUDE TOWARD LANGUAGE TEACHING SO THAT THE FLES PROGRAM CAN FULFILL ITS POTENTIAL TO SUCCESSFULLY PREPARE STUDENTS FOR THE FUTURE. "(one)... aspect of our future which will have considerable effect upon education is the increasing prominence of international affairs in our lives...We will increasingly see our fate as inseparably linked with the fate of others, and will see our most critical and immediate problems as lying outside our borders. There will be more international content in the school and college curriculum.

in every subject in which such content is possible."[13] The implications for FLES are a challenge which we must begin to meet today.

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[13] Hollis L. Caswell, "Great Challenges for Education," Vital Issues in American Education, Edited by Alice and Lester D. Crow, Bantam Books, New York, Toronto, London.

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PREPARATION FOR FLES

After more than a decade of FLES activity in this country, we are still faced with the crucial problem of an insufficient number of adequately trained teachers. It is an amazing and unfortunate situation that can be remedied only by a candid look at the status of FLES throughout the nation and the willingness to see FLES in a new light. First of all, the image of FLES, its rationale and relationship to the elementary school curriculum, must be enlarged and more firmly established. At present, we are in danger of remaining in isolation from the main stream of educational activity in the modern classroom. The lack of concern for the integration of foreign language learning with other areas of the curriculum leaves students and elementary school teachers unconvinced that learning a foreign language is meaningful and worthwhile. In addition, to be considered is the possibility of presenting foreign language in terms of the new approaches to teaching practiced in other areas of the curriculum. A willingness to carry on a dialogue must exist between FLES personnel and those concerned with curriculum development at the elementary level if FLES is to be assured a secure place in the total elementary school program. In this way, as long as this is true, it will be far easier to interest college students to take on the profession of FLES teacher--and it is from the ranks of the professionally prepared undergraduates and graduate students that we should find most of our FLES teachers of the future.

Once that FLES is established as a related, integral part of the curriculum as well as a foundation for a long-sequence foreign language program through grade 12, the role of the FLES teacher takes on a new aspect. THAT TEACHER MUST FUNCTION SATISFACTORILY NOT ONLY AS A LANGUAGE SPECIALIST BUT AS A SPECIALIST IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. The skills required are considerable in number and degree. The question is whether or not we can realistically expect our future FLES teachers to be fluent in the foreign language, to be skilled in teaching techniques for the elementary school level, foreign language included, and to have an understanding of child psychology and development as well. To provide an undergraduate within a four year program with all these qualifications is possible, but very ambitious. It is more feasible to plan in terms of greater strength and skill in one area of concentration than the other. In other words, the undergraduate program can probably include either a major in foreign language and a minor in elementary education, or a major in elementary education with a minor (or what is termed in some colleges as "an area of concentration") in a foreign language. As a result, we must face the fact that an adjustment has to be made in the role of each teacher, depending on his preparation. FLES teachers will not all be formed of one "mold," and it would seem that this is not only practical but desirable.

Within the past few years the dialogue of specialist versus classroom teacher has been gradually changing to a discussion of a type of team approach using both specialists and classroom teachers in the program. As early as 1961, the FLES Committee of the AATF urged administrators to consider the recruitment of elementary school teachers with an area of concentration in a foreign language. In the annual report for that year, it was stated that "there can be no more effective team than the skilled classroom teacher and the skilled language specialist working together in harmony; there can be no more talented FLES teacher than the good classroom teacher who is also thoroughly proficient in the language."[1] This happy combination still appears to be unusual in most FLES programs. In a recent publication on FLES the author states: "At present there are two broad solutions to the problem of who shall teach foreign languages to the elementary school child. One is to assign the responsibility to a language specialist, and the other to add FLES to the province of the classroom teacher."[2] A survey of FLES programs made in 1967 indicates that"'...generally one finds a combination of all the categories (TV teacher, classroom teacher, and language specialist). Nine supervisors said that most of the programs (in their states) were handled by specialists. Five mentioned that regular classroom teachers provide much of the

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[1] American Association of Teachers of French, Supply, Qualifications, and Training of Teachers of FLES, 1961, pp. 18, 19.

[2] Donoghue, Mildred. Foreign Languages and the Elementary School Child. Dubuque: William C. Brown, 1968, pp. 365, 366.

FLES instruction. One reported widespread use of native teachers."[3] The information for this survey was obtained by sending a questionnaire to all the State Supervisors of Foreign Language. Some thirty states responded.

What evidence we have in the form of reliable studies and surveys indicates a tendency to use a variety of teachers. But little information is available regarding the effective use of the group or team type of teaching in which the foreign language specialist and the classroom teacher supplement and help each other with his special skills. Yet this approach to teaching FLES appears to be the logical, practical, and advisable one. It faces the problem of teacher supply and teacher training realistically. It also makes possible the kind of teaching that combines the good features of the elementary school philosophy in curriculum development plus desirable practices in foreign language teaching at that level. The big problem at present is the inadequate supply of such teachers graduating from our colleges and universities.

There are several reasons why so few good FLES teacher training programs exist today. One is the lack of interest and faith in FLES as an educational development that deserves priority among the many innovations in our schools. Other important factors have been the unwillingness to get involved in a program not financially practical because of low enrollment, and the lack of qualified staff in the area of FLES education. There is a great need for discussion and an exchange of ideas between administrators and teachers in the schools and the college or university teacher education staff. Just as urgent is the need for an exchange of personnel. Skilled FLES specialists should be invited to join the college or university on a part-time basis to help with courses in methods, demonstration classes, and student teaching. On the other hand, the teacher education staff may need closer contact with the FLES classroom and could benefit greatly from extended periods of observation in the schools and the occasion to teach at that level also on a part-time basis. Both school and college or university staff should work together in frequent practicum-type sessions on the latest developments in the theories of language learning, linguistics, and methodology and their practical application to the classroom. This exchange and sharing will be effective only if done on a professional basis so that each group is both teacher and learner. If administrative red tape does not get in the way, such an arrangement would greatly increase the possibility of staffing new FLES teacher education programs. In addition, it would create an ideal, cooperative effort linking the schools and higher institutions of learning.

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[3] Gibson, Irene and Virginia Garibaldi. State Supervisor's Report on the Status of FLES, Indiana State Department of Instruction, 1967.

FLES teacher education is not, however, entirely without blueprints that provide good examples and guides for the future.

The programs that will be described here are a few of those known to the author. Undoubtedly, there are more, but there is at present no up-to-date survey of existing FLES teacher education programs. It is to be hoped that an inclusive picture of FLES teacher education will be available in the near future. In general, the existing programs consist of two types, one intended to prepare a full-time foreign language specialist and the other to prepare an elementary education major with a degree of proficiency in a foreign language.

In spite of the tendency to make more flexible programs for elementary education majors so that some specialization in an academic area is possible, most undergraduate programs still contain numerous courses in the teaching of basic areas of the curriculum, such as language arts, mathematics, social studies, art, music, and physical education. Consequently, colleges and universities[4] attempting to prepare elementary school classroom teachers to handle some of the teaching of a foreign language usually can require only from 15 to 25 credit hours in the foreign languages. In most cases, the credit starts with courses at the intermediate level. The students may fulfill the elementary foreign language requirement by high school credits, by placement examination, or by college credit earned at summer session. The graduate of such a program is usually capable of teaching the first two levels of FLES with the aid of good teaching materials, a master teacher or resource specialist, and a coordinator. If the use of specialists continues to grow in the elementary schools, then there will have to be a restructuring of the elementary education program that will decrease the number of methods courses in various areas of the curriculum and provide for more courses that combine methods and content in areas of concentration or specialization. The only alternative would seem to be a five-year program.

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[4] Reference here is made in particular to teacher education programs that have been set up at New York State University College at New Paltz; Purdue University; University of Illinois, Wisconsin State University at White Water, Ohio State University, Florida State University at Tallahassee and the University of Washington.

Institutions of higher learning concerned with teacher education for FLES specialists earning a Bachelor of Arts degree have no problem in providing a strong major in the foreign language as far as the number of credit hours is concerned. Their main problem is to develop the type of program that concentrates on the needs of the prospective FLES specialist who must be, above all, fluent in the language with a near-native pronunciation. In most cases there is still apt to be too much emphasis on literature and insufficient concentration on the active oral use of the language (a defect also frequent in the programs for secondary school teachers). Another essential part of the FLES specialist's training is a foundation in basic elementary education courses in the areas of child psychology and child development, elementary school curriculum and general teaching techniques. The student teaching experience should include at least a part of the time in FLES classes. Because of certification regulations in some states, the specialist can be certified only as a secondary school teacher. Where changes have not been made to improve certification for the future FLES specialist, that student must do his practice teaching at secondary school level. Antiquated certification requirements present another acute problem that must be solved in the near future.

The following is a sample program[5] leading to a B. A. degree with a major in the foreign language and certification as a FLES specialist:

Foreign Language - minimum requirements	
Oral and written language (beyond Level I)	10+ hours
Linguistics and phonetics	6 hours
Civilization and children's culture	2 hours
Literature	6+ hours
Seminar	2 hours
(Total required at least 30)	
Education	
Child Psychology	3 hours
Philosophy of Education	3 hours
Elementary School Curriculum	3 hours
Methods of Teaching FLES	3 hours
Practice Teaching	6 hours

This program is planned to emphasize the development of oral skills in the foreign language and a basic understanding of the elementary school classroom.

Another undergraduate program[6] leading to a B. A. degree for the prospective FLES teacher offers a thirty-hour major in a foreign language and electives in elementary education as recommended by mutual agreement of the education and foreign language departments (21-30 hours). This institution requires a full semester of student teaching, eight weeks in general elementary classrooms and eight in classes where a foreign language is taught. Here again the liberal arts program has been made flexible to take care of the needs of the student. It is only by such flexibility and cooperation planning that an effective FLES teacher education program can be developed.

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[5] College of Mount St. Joseph, Ohio, Sister Ruth Adelaide.

[6] New York State University College at Potsdam.

The full-time FLES specialist who graduates from such a program is prepared to teach all levels of FLES. He may serve as a master teacher for lower level classes where there is a qualified elementary school specialist to do follow-up and supplement the two or three lessons a week that he teaches. In addition, this full-time specialist would serve as a resource person for classroom teachers of FLES helping with language skill improvement, cultural information and sources of teaching aids. If the school system has no foreign language coordinator trained in FLES, the specialists might also hold workshops for all those involved in teaching FLES, giving guidance in techniques of teaching and the choice and use of materials. The background that the full-time specialist has in elementary education will give him an understanding essential to effective teaching at that level. But he will have to seek the help of the regular elementary school teachers participating in the program, as well as others within the system, to create a fully integrated program that is meaningful and worthwhile for the elementary school student. From the ranks of these FLES specialists may come coordinators and other leadership personnel following some teaching experience and graduate study.

While there are a number of undergraduate programs planned specifically to prepare FLES teachers, there are very few graduate programs[7] leading to a degree that have been tailored to meet their needs. The type of graduate program most suited to training the FLES specialist or preparing the FLES coordinator would probably be the Master of Arts in Teaching. Existing programs of this sort, usually geared to the secondary school teacher preparation, balance courses in education and courses in foreign language on a graduate level to fit the needs of the individual. There are, of course, minimum requirements to be met or fulfilled in each area. For those who started their teacher education at undergraduate level in a program planned for the prospective FLES teacher, there should be little or no problem in meeting the requirements for the MAT. At present, prospective graduate students who are teaching or plan to teach FLES often find themselves penalized for their deficiencies in either a Master of Arts or Master of Education program. Because they may have changed their level of teaching to the elementary school, or because they are taking on a new major in a foreign language, these students may have to take a number of courses at undergraduate level for which they get no graduate credit. The lack of flexibility in many of our graduate programs has discouraged the potential FLES specialist who cannot afford to take courses without credit, above all, courses that are not relevant to his needs as a FLES teacher.

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[7] Such programs exist at Hunter College, New York University School of Education, and Ohio State University which offers a Master of Arts in Teaching.

Although the well-planned undergraduate and graduate FLES teacher education programs are undoubtedly the hope for the future, interim programs may be needed for some time. The following program for a liberal arts graduate with a major in a foreign language was set up to encourage the prospective FLES teacher and to expedite his preparation leading to certification. It may well be a most desirable blueprint for the immediate future. "The basic program consists of four parts: (1) a period of observation-participation conducted for the most part in the sponsoring school district; (2) a preliminary curriculum study period; (3) a year's internship assignment in which the participant fulfills the instructional responsibilities of a classroom teacher and for which he is paid a salary of approximately $5,200; (4) a final period of curriculum. All instruction is conducted at the graduate level and is organized around the seminar plan.---Each student enrolls for a total of 27 graduate credits; 18 of these may apply toward a Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction. Upon completion of the program, the candidate is recommended for the

California Standard Teaching Credential (specialization in elementary education)"[8] This type of program has the advantages of giving integrated work in theory and practice planned to make the most of graduate students who have already had teaching experience. Although it does not in itself cover all requirements for the degree, it leads to the degree and provides certification.

Another program offered by a university on the West Coast concentrates on the development of language skills mainly. It was set up to facilitate and expedite the preparation of FLES teachers, but it could serve as a plan for future programs. It consists of "pre-service preparation which will enable one to reach at least the minimal in the four language skills....After two high school years of a language (or equivalent study) one could complete the pre-service sequence in 20-30 credits....The in-service courses are designed to help one attain higher levels of competence."[9] Emphasis in course content is on the development of skills in listening and speaking, as well as in reading and composition. Usually the pre-service courses would be for undergraduates. The upper level courses, or in-service courses, for the graduate students, are to be taken preferably after at least one year of teaching.

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[8] Teaching internship in the Elementary Schools, Claremont Graduate School and University Center, Claremont, California.

[9] University of Washington, Seattle.

In the past pre-service and in-service training in FLES for the experienced teacher has often been taken over by specialists within the school system where the teacher is located. Depending on the staff, teaching materials, time, and funds available, such workshops have been more or less successful. A more enriching type of workshop for these teachers would be one that combines the talents of the staff of a local college or university and that of the specialists in the school system. Courses in language skills, linguistics and the theory of language learning, in particular, would be taken at the institution of higher learning. Much of the practicum would be conducted in the schools under the guidance of the school FLES specialists and qualified professors of FLES methodology. The practicum should be so structured that it provides a laboratory type learning in teaching techniques, the use of materials, and curriculum development. By mutual agreement of the college or university and school administration, credit should be granted for this in-service program toward a degree and/or for merit raises.

IF FLES IS TO GROW AND IMPROVE, TEACHER EDUCATION IN THIS AREA MUST HAVE INCREASED SUPPORT AND HELP FROM THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. It is regrettable that the number of NDEA Foreign Language Institutes for FLES teachers had to be drastically reduced. At present there is little financial help available for the graduate student in FLES teacher education. Grants under Title V specifically for experienced and inexperienced teachers of foreign language at the elementary school level have been virtually nonexistent. Without available fellowships of this sort, it is very difficult to train a sufficient number of leadership personnel and highly qualified specialists. Usually the individual college or university also needs encouragement and financial aid to maintain programs which they may have started. As has been mentioned previously, FLES teacher education programs are apt to be considered poor risks because low enrollment does not justify the cost of additional qualified staff. Without a commitment to FLES on the part of those responsible for federal grants, the growth of such programs may never reach the point of providing the number of good teachers needed to keep FLES a part of our educational scene. The new interest in institutes to train teachers in bilingual schools is definitely a step forward. On the other hand, bilingualism is not the only desirable approach to FLES. In some parts of the nation bilingual schools are likely to increase very slowly in number because the local situation does not favor bilingualism. In these areas, there will continue to be no FLES for some time--or possibly indefinitely unless federal grants for good teacher education programs in FLES receive higher priority.

In conclusion, let us take a second look at this FLES teacher of the future. He must be a true professional who has a dignified, determined role in the elementary school scene. His training should have started at the undergraduate level in a carefully planned teacher education program. This does not exclude all retrained teachers in the field, but the majority of the teachers in the well-established FLES programs of the present and future should qualify in language and teaching skills to the degree expected of any specialist in the schools, depending on his role in the classroom, as stated previously. There are many young people in our colleges and universities anxious to consider a career as a FLES teacher. Unfortunately, the dialogue between the schools and institutions responsible for teacher education programs has been infrequent and often unsatisfactory. There is a degree of responsibility and shared planning essential on both sides. Above all there must be an interest in and a commitment to the teaching of foreign language to elementary school children on the part of all. This is the only way that the undecided, or even the decided, undergraduate or graduate student will be encouraged to enter FLES education. This is the only way that FLES can find its rightful place in the modern elementary school.

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Reference here is made in particular to teacher education programs that have been set up at New York State University College at New Paltz; Purdie University; University of Illinois, Wisconsin State University at White Water, Ohio State University, Florida State University at Tallahassee and the University of Washington.

College of Mount St. Joseph, Ohio, Sister Ruth Adelaide.

New York State University College at Potsdam.

Such programs exist at Hunter College, New York University School of Education, and Ohio State University which offers a Master of Arts in Teaching.

Teaching Internship in the Elementary Schools, Claremont Graduate School and University, Claremont, California.

University of Washington, Seattle.

Section II

THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES ON FLES

Educational programs are now facing new challenges as a result of discoveries in the field of the multi-media. Along with advances in technology have come pertinent questions in an attempt to pinpoint the implications of the new "hardware," such as:

Will the equipment help or hinder the educational process?

Can children really study and learn autonomously?

Will machines replace teachers?

The author of the first article presents a comprehensive overview of many of these modern materials and projects which may have strong implications for the future course of FLES.

It has been said that pupils can make progress in learning if they are self-motivated and self-directed. In the second report, the author analyses the advantages and disadvantages of one of the new media for learning, programmed instruction, and its possible and probable role in FLES instruction.

G. L.

INNOVATIONS AND SCHOOL FACILITIES

Particularly since the early 1960's American educators have been questioning the way ~~education~~ structures learning. Time and again attempts to revitalize learning, to innovate, have been frustrated by factors that were supposed to facilitate learning. The school schedule, the shape and organization of learning spaces, rigid ideas of the role of the teacher were among the factors that stood in the way of change.

Challenging current practice, Trump in 1962 pointed out that the school "tries to pack all phases of instruction in a subject into self-contained classrooms with one teacher and, hopefully, twenty-five students in each room."[1] Predicting that tomorrow's school will organize differently, Trump challenged teachers to look at their courses to seek answers to three questions:

1. What do we now teach, or wish to teach, that students can learn for themselves?
2. What do we now teach; or wish to teach, that actually requires directions, explanations, demonstrations, furnishing of more background information and inspiration by a teacher?
3. What do we now teach, or wish to teach, that requires interaction among students, or between teacher and students?

Trump, himself, suggested that the answers to these questions would result in considerable change in organization for instruction. Changes he suggested were:

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[1] J. Lloyd Trump, "The Educational Setting for the Language Laboratory," International Journal of American Linguistics, 28:124, January, 1962.

the size of instructional groups.

Individualization of some instruction.

Flexability in scheduling for instruction.

Organizing staff into instructional teams.

Including technological media in instructional systems.

Now, eight years later, many of these innovations are being attempted. They have already dramatically affected school design, and both new construction and renovation have taken into account new requirements for facilities.

Ideally the questions Trump has asked are posed first, the answers result in plans for instructional change, and then facilities and schedules are designed (or redesigned) to make the new instructional patterns possible. However, only too often, since each step impinges on the other, the logical, orderly process is reversed and teachers are forced to cope with new facilities that are at the same time promising and threatening.

The changes have been most dramatically felt in the secondary school where the rigidity of the program most needed correction. However, as we shall see, elementary schools are being affected as well.

Grouping

Answers to the Trump questions have produced at the secondary level a demand for large group spaces, medium sized group spaces, small group spaces, and individual study spaces.

Concurrently they have produced frustration as teachers tried to develop new teaching strategies to cope with demands that they teach groups of various sizes. Particularly, large group instruction has presented major problems as Politzer has pointed out.[2]

Over the years the elementary teacher has proved that one teacher can direct a number of small groups within a class in a variety of purposeful activities. Paradoxically when foreign languages are taught in the elementary school the instruction generally follows a most rigid whole class lockstep pattern whether the language is taught by television, a perapetetic specialist, or by a regular classroom teacher.

Individualizing Instruction

Perhaps the new accent on individualizing instruction will be the most dramatic break with the past. Gardner and Lambert[3] Pimsleur[4] and Pillet[5] have recently provided impetus in the foreign language field by stressing individual differences in aptitude and motivation. As we gain increasingly better knowledge of pupil aptitudes and interests, the teacher will be better able to guide pupils into activities that interest him. There should be a natural inclination to provide such individualization in FLES, for elementary school teachers have traditionally been alert to pupil differences.

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[2] Robert Politzer, "Flexible Scheduling and the Foreign Language Curriculum," DFL Bulletin, 7:7, October, 1967.

[3] R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert, "Language Aptitude, Intelligence, and Second Language Achievement," Journal of Educational Psychology, 54:191-99.

[4] Paul Pimsleur, "Testing Foreign Language Learning," Trends in Language Teaching, ed., Albert Valdman, (New York, 1966, pp. 175-186.

[5] Roger Pillet, "Individualizing Instruction," DFL Bulletin, 5:3, December, 1967.

> We need the kinds of teaching and the kinds of facilities that are appropriate to individual modes of learning that students bring to class. One child can learn well from a recording, from a lecture or from a reader; another child learns better from a dramatic play, role playing, or seeing a concrete model, or from some other kind of illustration or effort. Each person has his own style, his own way that works best for him, and it behooves the school to provide for this range of difference.[6]

Individual study carrels provided with a rich supply of print and non-print materials are being located in classrooms, libraries, and so-called Instructional Materials Center (IMC). So far the trend is particularly strong in the secondary school, but it is seen in the elementary school as well.[7]

Can elementary school foreign language teachers effectively use new individual study spaces? Pillet in the article cited above suggests that they should stress individualized language learning in a "child centered" rather than the present teacher-centered program.

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[6] Melvin W. Baines, Educational Facilities with New Media, ed. Alan C. Green, (Washington, 1966), p. B9.

[7] Nolan Estes, "Valley Winds Elementary School," Audio-Visual Instruction, 19:142-43, February, 1965.

Flexible Scheduling

The school schedule has long kept secondary education in an instructional straitjacket. Administrators and teachers, intimidated by school bells, have rejected most attempts at innovation that threatened to impinge on the bell schedule. The look at instruction that Trump demanded resulted as we have seen in variable grouping. It also resulted in varying time allotments for various activities including adding large blocks of "unstructured" (unscheduled) time during which students are free to study alone or with others, seek tutoring assistance, work on projects, or just relax.

Teachers under flexible schedules also have less assigned teaching time but are expected to plan for instruction individually and with other teachers and to schedule individual and small group conferences with students.

In theory, the elementary school has few scheduling problems, for as a rule one teacher has a class all day. In practice, the schedule is more rigid than it appears. Once the routine of thirty minutes for reading, twenty minutes for French, and so on, is established neither principals or teachers are happy to violate it. However, a new concept, team teaching, is loosening up the elementary schedule.[8]

The Staff As A Team

Somebody once described teaching as an extremely lonely job. The teacher closes his classroom door and teaches his class with little interference from anyone. Now this format is being challenged. Why should one teacher write her own lesson plans, type up her own duplicator masters, run them off, teach her pupils all they are going to learn (including French) correct all papers, ad infinitum?

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[8] Arther A. Lalime, "Elementary Schools Designed for Team Teaching," *Audio-Visual Instruction*, 7:540-41. October, 1962.

New thinking regards the staff as a team and includes not only teachers, but clerks and teachers' aides, as well. In this team approach, interests, pedogogical skills, and subject matter, knowledge of teachers can be utilized to make instruction stimulating and efficient. Joint planning provides for an interchange of ideas and invigorates all staff members.

In this atmosphere, the French teacher plans with other team members an activity pregnant with implications and promise for FLES. She must also, of course, plan new teaching strategies for large, medium and small groups and independent study. Not only will she need materials of many kinds, but a variety of equipment types to present them. We will speak of equipment later.

Impact on the School

> We must realize...that no course can meet a student's needs if it is conducted entirely in one size group or in one way anymore than any course can meet a student's total needs if it is done totally by television.[9]

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[9] Alan C. Green (ed.), Educational Facilities with New Media, (Washington, 1966), p. B-7.

Large group spaces may be only that or they may be developed on demand out of a number of small spaces with movable walls. In large group space, more than one class at a given time may watch a television lesson or a film, listen to a speaker or a recording, watch a live portrayal of a cultural situation, take a test or watch a pupil skit. Large group space will often be tiered for most effective viewing and be provided with all conventional audio-visual devices. Furthermore, each pupil position can be provided with an automated testing device that records student answers for multiple-choice tests and automatically scores responses as they are made.

Because of the importance of good acoustics, the floor should be acoustically treated (carpeted) instead of the ceiling. Depending on the size of the room, it may be necessary to provide amplified sound for the instructor.

Medium size group spaces are about the size of the conventional classroom. Changes from past facilities are likely to include a growing flexibility to allow for considerable variance in subgroup size within the space and opportunity for pupils to work individually and in small groups with various media.

Here the teacher may teach a whole group of twenty-five to forty pupils (or let them watch a television FLES program). She may have some monitor a foreign language tape at a listening table, while others view a set of slides or a film on an individual or small group projector. Some pupils may be creating or practicing an original skit. Others may be using programmed readers. The teacher, herself, may engage a small group in conversation.

Small group space is useful for from five to ten pupils. It is typically furnished with tables for seminar type activities but may be provided with audio-visual devices for review and introduction of new basic and supplementary material. Projects may be undertaken here. In programs featuring individualized activity, small group spaces are convenient for pupil-teacher and pupil-pupil conferences. Remedial instruction, conversation, and individual and small group testing are possible activities.

Teachers who teach small numbers of pupils are delighted with the change in class atmosphere when the small group moves from a space built for thirty pupils to space one-third to one-half that size. Students formerly mute and uninterested became lively participants in the right surroundings.

The Foreign Language Resource Center

As Hocking has pointed out, the language laboratory has not gained wide acceptance in the elementary school.[10] The tape recorder as a presentation device has been widely used in FLES programs, however. Locke has called for experimentation with the laboratory for FLES.[11] Ely lists the advantages for what he calls an electronic classroom in the elementary school. They are familiar arguments for anyone who has read literature on the laboratory.[12]

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[10] Elton Hocking, The Language Laboratory and Language Learning, Washington, D. C., 1964, p. 174.

[11] William Locke, "The Future of Language Laboratories," Moderner Fremdsprachenunterricht, Berlin, 1965, p. 235.

The language laboratory in its present form is a highly restrictive, intensive instrument providing an isolation experience unlike those generally believed to be successful with young children. Existing materials, furthermore, are largely uninteresting even for more mature learners. Yet studies by Newmark[13] and Fearing[14] have shown that seventh graders and even younger learners can learn from programmed materials. Independent learning carrels are finding their way into elementary schools. The listening table, an installation for small groups of students, is gaining wide acceptance in intermediate grades as well. It would appear that tape study can succeed if materials and other learning conditions take into consideration the immaturity of the learner.

At the same time, new, relatively inexpensive and very light battery operated cassette recorders may make the laboratory obsolete as a study facility. Cassette recorders can be checked out from an Instructional Materials Center for use anywhere in the school or even taken home overnight or for extended periods of time. With this kind of equipment parents can be involved in the learning process if they wish.

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[12] Donald Ely, "Facts and Fallacies About New Media in Education," Revolution in Teaching, New York, 1964, p. 43.

[13] Gerald Newmark, "A Study of Programmed Self-Instruction for Seventh Grade Learners," Advances in the Teaching of Modern Languages, (ed. G. Mathieu), Oxford: 1966, p. 47.

[14] Percy Fearing, Minnesota Foreign Language Bulletin, 7: 17, 18, Winter, 1968.

A number of companies now offer a visual display for both positions. The "talking typewriter," a new concept, provides for visual (slide) and audio presentations plus oral and written responses.[15] Less complicated equipment could do much the same thing, as English Language Services has proven in its new teacher-training course.

Use of the language laboratory should focus only on individualized learning. Shulze[16] and Newmark[17] have noted the need for a student to work with other students and/or the teacher in programmed learning. Students vary in their ability to work in isolation. Not only poor students become frustrated and uneasy under such circumstances.

Much is yet unknown about the best proportion of listening, repeating, recording, and comparing, as well as the contribution to learning of a visual component.[18]

How does an elementary school decide whether or not it should install a language laboratory? Heals suggests a systems analysis.

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[15] "Talking Typewriter Patented," Phi Delta Kappan, 48:194, January, 1967.

[16] Susan Shulze et al, A Two Year Study of the Use of Programmed Materials for the Instruction of French in High School, Minneapolis: Minneapolis Public Schools, 1966, (mimeographed).

[17] Gerald Newmark, op. cit., p. 66.

[18] William Locke, op. cit., p. 251.

> ...the choice between a language laboratory and conventional instruction would involve much more information on how rapidly linguistic skill is acquired in a laboratory. It would include considerations of the cost and availability of software, teacher training, maintenance, and many other related activities entering the comparison.[19]

He adds that

> ...comparisons of conventional and laboratory systems would delay a sizeable number of purchases until all the system pieces have been assembled for accomplishing the school's objective.

It would appear from Hocking's data that consciously or unconsciously using a form of system's analysis the elementary schools have on the whole delayed purchases of language laboratory equipment.

A new concept, the Foreign Language Resource Center promises to combine the language laboratory with other media including periodicals and books in a new setting much more stimulating than the conventional language laboratory atmosphere. Arranged to provide individual learning spaces and group spaces, the FLRC provides an opportunity for browsing, viewing, reading, thinking, discussing, writing and typing that makes language learning exciting. Displays include real objects, posters, charts and maps. The following equipment is available in the center: tape recorders, record players, activated earphones, slide and filmstrip viewers, shortwave radio, portable blackboards, 8 mm and 16 mm small group projectors, foreign language typewriters and duplicators. While the above description applies to a secondary facility, it has obvious applications in elementary schools as well.

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[19] Donald W. Meals, "Heuristic Models for Systems Planning," Phi Delta Kappan, 48:201, January, 1967.

The FLRC may begin as a corner of the classroom or a corner of the library. Later on a satellite room, usually adjacent to the library and under the administration of the librarian or the director of the Instructional Materials Center, may be needed to house the growing collection of materials and provide study room for the growing number of pupil users.

Supporting Facilities

Because of heavy use of instructional facilities and because of need for space for staff, planning and preparation and storage of materials, office, meeting, and production and storage, areas must be designed into the facilities. Hundreds of books, tapes, slides, filmstrips, transparencies, foreign language games, periodicals, maps and globes must be kept in good order.

In production areas, teachers may make tape recordings, transparencies and other desired materials.

Extending the School

For years American educators have been talking about the "community school," but in many if not most of our schools, except for an occasional PTA meeting or student club meeting, the buildings stand vacant from the middle of the afternoon until 8:00 a.m. Furthermore, summer vacation provides a lengthy period during which millions of urban children with little to do are dumped out into the streets for an extended period.

Now, particularly because of federal impetus provided under the Elementary and Secondary School Act of 1965, school systems are extending the school day and providing a rich assortment of summer courses including foreign languages for elementary and secondary school children and youth. A particularly interesting summer program was developed by Gerhard Wilke of the Springfield Public Schools. Technological media and native-speaker teacher aids provided a great share of the instruction.[20]

Often this means that conventional facilities are open longer into the evening or through the summer months. However, there are predictions that learning will move right out of the school building, not only on local field trips but into the home through mass media. Denver reports success with a rerun in the evening of its televised FLES course. Parents and pupils are encouraged to watch programs together.

Certainly other enterprising districts will emulate Denver. Perhaps others will organize evening sessions for parents and children in the local school building.

Probably the most stimulating extension of the school program is the one which tries to be radically different. For secondary school students the growing popularity of summer foreign study and travel is indicative that foreign languages and cultures are of interest to youth.[21] For the child in the intermediate grades and junior high school, the foreign language camp is a similarly exciting experience. Thus instruction moves out of the schoolhouse beyond the city into the countryside to establish a cultural island.[22]

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[20] Gerhard M. Wilke, "A Summer Language Activity School," DFL Bulletin, 6:8-11, May, 1967.

[21] John E. Bowman, "High School Exchange Programs, the Unknown Giant," Phi Delta Kappan, 49:215-217, December, 1967.

The extended school then may include late afternoon and early evening activities; it may include classes brought into the home via radio or television; or it may include weeks of learning at camp or even overseas.

Technological Media

The teacher is a medium, the textbook is a medium, the chalkboard is a medium. All transmit information. Other media range from real objects, pictures, charts to highly sophisticated electro-mechanical devices, projectors, tape recorders, teaching machines and even the computer.

Until recently, new media have been usually used in secondary schools as supplements to basic courses of study. A film is scheduled because it has something to do with the unit of study; a transparency is made because the teacher thinks it may add variety; perhaps a set of slides is shown because the day is Friday, the last day before Christmas vacation.

In elementary schools, at least for purposes of language learning, the medium has often become the sole element of instruction.

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[22] Eileen C. Bouniol, "Language Camps in the United States," *DFL Bulletin*, 6·5-8, May, 1967.

> Technology is not just machines and men; it is a complex, integrated organization of men, machines, ideas, procedures, and management. New media by themselves are neutral; nothing but distribution systems, but as we relate machines, men, ideas, and procedures we begin to see an instructional system.[23]

Thus a medium should be a part of a total system of instruction, chosen because it can do a part of the total job more efficiently than any other element.

Media can increase the opportunities for learning. The following is not meant to be an exhaustive coverage of uses of new media but to be suggestive of a few creative ways in which media may increase language learning.

Media Create Unique Learning Situations

A film can for a brief time transform the classroom to a foreign setting so that pupils can see people living in another culture. A unique "Twinned Classroom" approach in one FLES classroom had French children create learning materials including tape recordings for American youngsters learning the French language.[24] Cannot American students communicate directly with students overseas and include a face-to-face confrontation via satellite television?

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[23] Donald Ely, "Facts and Fallacies About New Media in Education," Revolution in Teaching, (New York, 1964), p. 43.

[24] Sister Ruth Adelaide Jonas, S. C., "A Unique Use of Media: 'Twinned Classroom' Approach to the Learning of French," Audio-Visual Instruction, 13:468-470, May, 1968.

Media Provide A Range of Learning Experiences Tailored for Specific Learning Objectives

Real objects, transparency drawings, recordings, charts, and print materials, for example, allow saturation coverage of a unit of work without making boredom inevitable. Review and overlearning becomes a pleasure instead of a chore. As simple a machine as the overhead projector can be used for presentation of a visual illustration of a dialogue, the presentation of the printed version of the same material, as well as recombinations of the material. Furthermore, it may be used in the response mode as pupils retell stories from visual cues, or add missing material to an incomplete projected written dialogue. Hutchinson predicts that films and video tape will eventually provide models of contrastive paralanguage and kinesic behavior patterns.[25]

Media Can Teach Various Size Groups, and at the Same Time

An existing French course for elementary schools can be presented to one pupil or a few on an 8 mm projector. In 16 mm, it can be presented to hundreds, the number limited mainly by the size of the viewing space. On television, hundreds of thousands of pupils nationwide (and beyond) can watch at one time. At the same time, television can give an individual or a class the illusion that the program is directed at him (or them) simply by separating the viewer (s) from other viewing groups.

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[25] Hutchinson, op. cit., p. 231.

Media Can Increase Motivation by Heightening Realism, Dynamism and Emotionalism

Dykstra demonstrated that 8 mm film can be used to simulate a conversational exchange between the learner and an actor in the film.[26] Thus the film becomes more than a model for imitation, but a vehicle for interaction between a native speaker and the student. New media like the so-called "talking typewriters," which have not yet been programmed for foreign languages can call the student by name if this is desired. Of course any medium which presents a character with which the observer wants to identify, "a competence model" as Jerome Bruner would say, has created an environment for heightened motivation.

The video tape recorder will offer pupils the opportunity not only to see sequences recorded by staff members in the foreign country, but to record student presentations for eventual replay to themselves and their classmates.

The Foreign Service Institute and the Army Language School create a feeling of reality by having learners practice language in mockups of villages, train stations, and other models of real locations in the foreign country.

Some Media Make the Best Teachers and Learning Experience Available to More Students

A few of the television FLES courses demonstrate the virtue of television when it uses the best teaching talent to creatively present material for a given age level. Television cannot be justified if it uses only good (not superior) teachers with limited resources to present what never should have been created in the first place. In the foreseeable future, even if media could be justified on no other grounds, they would have to be used to teach foreign languages in the elementary school because competent FLES teachers are not available in adequate supply.[27]

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[26] Louis Forsdale and Gerald Dykstra, "An Experimental Method of Teaching Foreign Languages by Means of 8 mm Sound Film in Cartridge-Loading Projectors," Language Learning, 13:5-10, 1963.

Media Extend the Learning Situation for Students; at the Same Time They May Present New Material to Teachers

Teachers have indicated that they themselves benefit from hearing lesson material spoken by native speakers on tape. A costly instructional program designed for television by experts and a number of audio-visual courses teach teachers as well as pupils about French culture and language.

Slide sets, filmstrips, films, furthermore, enrich courses of instruction by adding new dimensions to basic units. New projectors add the possibility of individual and small group use of media so that a medium can be used easily for individual enrichment, for a special group project or by all students but individually in unscheduled time.

Corder notes the promises of television in these words:

> TV can set formal teaching free from the constricting walls of the classroom. This fact alone will one day transform language teaching.[28]

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[27] Elton Hocking, op. cit., p. 79.

[28] S. Pit Corder, "Modern Foreign Language Teaching by Television," Trends in Language Teaching, (A. Valdman, ed. O, (New York, 1966), p. 238.

Media Can Aid Individualization of Instruction

Some would say that individualization of instruction is not possible without media. A machine can provide language instruction for a gifted child as enrichment, or it can allow many children to progress through the same material at different rates. It can provide supplementary (i.e. plateau) learning to reinforce skills learned up to a point. It can provide an opportunity for the child to find out something he wants to know in a way he wants to learn it. It can present the same material as many times as necessary without tiring. Some new tape equipment can even vary the speed of presentation to combat the familiar complaint, "He talks too fast!"[29]

Media Can Free the Teacher for Individual Tutoring

When teachers complain that students do not work well in individual study, the material is most likely at fault. Drill material, indifferently presented, quickly causes the pupil to lose interest. Furthermore, much material presented by machine is not carefully sequenced or graded, does not provide for review or branching, and does not provide adequate knowledge of results. Many pre-recorded language laboratory tapes, for example, require teacher monitoring if learning is to occur. The fault, however, is usually in the material not the presentation device. (The exception would be a device which was incapable of producing high quality sound or was inoperable). Even at that, that language laboratory does give each student the illusion of having his own personal tutor and allows each student to practice in isolation. Without the lab this would not be possible.

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[29] Joseph Hutchinson, op. cit, p. 228.

Media Can Provide Intensive Accelerated Learning Experiences

A medium can be used as we have noted to release the learner from the lockstep of the typical classroom. In unusual cases of special ability and interest, a pupil may be able to learn at a far greater rate than his fellows. Programmed courses particularly offer this possibility for students who are confronted with an early departure for a foreign country. A Minneapolis experience indicates that programmed materials are particularly successful for summer school students who are expected to master a complete level in less than the normal time.

Some Educational Objectives Can Be Realized More Economically By Using Media Rather Than Conventional Means

The truth of this statement is irrefutable. Unfortunately, this has been a major justification for using television for teaching foreign languages in the elementary school. If a medium saves money and is as efficient or more so then conventional instruction, it would seem to be highly justifiable. However, a new objective such as teaching foreign languages in the elementary school will cost more money whether television is used or not. To set up a good program will cost a great deal of money, for in addition to the televised program, one must add other components of the system: supervision, specialist teachers, student materials. Cutting corners will hurt the program and is likely to create negative attitudes toward language study among elementary school learners as it did in a Philadelphia study.[30]

The Contemplated Purchase of Media Encourages Educators to Examine Goals

We have had media with us for some time without a very careful examination of goals. Increasingly, however, we are being challenged to justify innovations in terms of contributions to behavioral objectives. Creating a real system of instruction including media and new kinds of building spaces requires a careful look at goals plus an analysis of resources and techniques necessary to reach them. This kind of careful analysis would not expect television to carry the whole burden of instruction anymore than it would ask a teacher who did not know a foreign language to teach French or follow-up a television lesson.

The movement toward merger of huge electronic concerns with print oriented traditional publishers would seem to herald a day in which an instructional package: print and non-print learning materials, teachers' manuals and hardware may all be purchased together in a compatible system.

Conclusion

There are strong trends in elementary and secondary education toward a dramatic reorganization of the American school. The

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[30] Gertrude Moscowitz, "TV FLES vs. Live FLES: A Study of Student Reactions," Modern Language Journal, 46:213-219, May, 1965.

Reorganization is based on a new concept of the pupil-teacher relationship and is evident in new groupings of students, individualization of instruction, new ways of utilizing staff, new scheduling of time for learning, and an extension of the traditional school. The reorganization is reflected, furthermore, in dramatic changes in school facilities and increased demand for the help of educational technology.

This reorganization is proceeding without sizeable participation of the foreign language profession and is, therefore, proceeding in spite of the profession. The new facilities and equipment hold great promise for foreign languages, as well as other areas, but the profession must act forthrightly to meet the challenge of developing new teaching strategies to cope with the changing conditions.

For the FLES teacher his revolution is likely to take the following form:

1. Technological media will be used increasingly to teach foreign languages to large, medium and small sized groups and individuals as well. There will be a proliferation of easy-to-load and use projectors and tape and record players. Finally, media will be used increasingly to provide learning experiences outside of the traditional school setting.
2. The elementary school classroom will be redesigned to provide for various concurrent language learning activities and the use of a wide variety of media.
3. Foreign language resource centers will be set up and they will attract students by virtue of their wide and stimulating assortment of learning materials.

4. Instructional spaces of several sizes will allow various sized groups to receive FLES instruction for different instructional purposes.

5. Spaces for staff planning and production of learning materials will become more common.

6. FLES experiences will be increasingly provided in non-traditional facilities such as homes and camps.

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PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

Roads leading to more effective education are usually convergent. Of chapters in educational developments that are currently being written this is certainly so. The work of psychologists, specialists in curriculum and in the education of young children reveals many common denominators and programmed instruction puts into practice many of their theories.

Psychology teaches that children generally learn more by doing than by being told or shown. Helping children to learn through their own efforts teaches them something more useful than a body of facts, many of which will become obsolete long before their schooling has been completed. It teaches them ways of learning. Teachers can and do teach by the "discovery method," but the task is not always accomplished with maximum efficiency. Leading children three times around the barn before they discover an entrance-way does not help them to acquire an effective method for working through a problem. Millie Almy in her book Young Children's Thinking points this out as she writes: "...there is no reason to believe that a discovery is more meaningful if the child has had to flounder aimlessly for a period before making the discovery."[1]

With programmed instruction the responsibility for learning is fully upon the learner. At every step he is involved actively, making an overt response to each question or problem. Program writers and researchers point out that programmed instruction employs the Socratic method. Through a carefully planned series of small steps, the program leads the learner to "discover" knowledge. Skillfully prepared programs have, in many cases, saved time for other kinds of work that the teacher alone could guide. The teacher can often improve his own teaching skill by studying a program or two, or better still, by writing a few program frames and testing them on his students. Even so, not all good teachers are necessarily good programmers.

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[1] Millie Almy with Edward Chittenden and Paula Miller, Young Children's Thinking: Studies of some aspects of Piaget's Theory (New York: Teachers College Press, 1966), p. 139.

People who are unfamiliar with programmed instruction and its uses often express concern about its effect upon the relationship between the student and teacher and the program's effect upon the student himself, particularly if the learner is a young child. Programmed instruction has been used for teaching many skills at every level from kindergarten through post-college. Schools which have tried programmed instruction at various grade levels have found generally that it is the younger children who accept it more readily. Youngsters whose initial experience with programmed instruction comes at junior or senior high school level often find it more difficult to adjust to assuming the responsibility for their own learning which programmed instruction forces upon them. Just as the child who has been accustomed to riding resists walking, this kind of reaction toward programmed instruction on the part of the older learner could well be a sympton of over-dependency cultivated by years of "spoon-feeding." This consideration seems to be supported by the fact that children who use programmed materials while they are still very young generally develop better work habits.

Programmed instruction holds hope for individual children to achieve in many areas that have in the past been considered out of their reach. Blame for failure with programmed materials is attributed to the inadequacy of some part or parts of the program, rather than to the learner's lack of ability or readiness. The view that inability to cope with learning tasks is due less to the child's intellectual endowment or stage of development than to method of presentation permeates current educational thinking. Jerome S. Bruner has expanded convincingly upon his hypothesis that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" and that "any idea can be presented honestly and usefully in the thought forms of children of school age."[2] Millie Almy finds the same view similarly expressed in the work of Piaget. In discussing the essence of Piaget's method, she describes it as "the assessment of the child's readiness to make a particular discovery, and the pacing of his educational experience to that readiness so that he will have both the intellectual content and the cognitive abilities needed to make it."[3]

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[2] Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Books, 1960), p. 33.

[3] Almy, Young Children's Thinking, p. 139.

Although most programs in the various subject matters which have been produced up to this point presume ability on the part of the learner to read, the possibility of creating programs for pre-literates is not precluded. Commerically prepared materials for the teaching of reading in grades one through three exist. Some materials prepared locally by schools have been used even at the kindergarten level. Omar Moore has produced a program for teaching two- and three-year-olds to read and type. F. Rand Morton, who has constructed a programmed course in Spanish, reports an experiment with programmed instruction at a state institution for mentally handicapped children.[4] Many of the children, including some of those most severely handicapped, learned to add and subtract as they "played with" the machine. These accounts would seem to indicate that neither age, nor literacy nor intellectual endowment in themselves set limitations on the use of programmed instruction.

One of the hopes that the earlier exponents of programmed instruction held for it was that by breaking tasks into minimal steps the same material could be learned by relatively large numbers of students whose differences in ability would be accommodated by allowing them to progress through the program at their own rate or by providing supplementary frames at various points in the program for those who needed additional practice and explanation. Experiences to date tend to show, however, that freedom in rate of progression and supplementary frames do not solve all the problems of instructing wide bands of individual differences. Usually it has been the brightest students who have benefited most from the program. They move along rapidly and finish while slower students often bog down. There is some thought that the problems of the slower students are tied to reading difficulties, but this is only a conjecture at present. At the same time the brighter students frequently complain of finding the materials boring or that so little was learned for the amount of material and time consumed. These criticisms suggest that different programs will be needed for instructing children exhibiting variations in ability, motivation, study and work habits.

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[4] F. Rand Morton, "The Teaching Machine and the Teaching of Languages: A Report on Tomorrow," Foreign Languages and the Schools (Mildred R. Donoghue, ed.) (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1967), pp. 358-367. Reprinted by permission of the Modern Language Association from "The Teaching Machine and the Teaching of Languages: A Report on Tomorrow," PMLA, Vol. 75, pp. 1-6, September, 1960.

Even the successes of programmed materials do not indicate that they will be able to assume the entire burden of instruction in any area. There are some educational tasks to which they seem better suited than others. While programs have been quite successful in teaching mechanical aspects of language, no way has been devised for programmed instruction to handle the teaching of the communicative functions of language. Sequences of short steps fail to provide an over-all view of how each part operates within the whole. Programmers themselves have not been unaware of these limitations and have been making efforts to overcome them. But even with subject matter which is less open-ended than language, it has been found that there is still the need for discussion periods and practice in the application of learning to other situations. While the student receives immediate confirmation about the correctness of his response at every step in the program, there is growing doubt about the sufficiency of this kind of reward by itself. Some students do derive satisfaction from working with materials themselves but others need the stimulation and approval of the teacher and fellow-students. They need also the opportunity to assess their achievement against that of others in the group.

It is clear, then, from experiments with programmed instruction thus far that the use of a program does not obviate the need for the teacher. This is also true of programs designed as "totally self-instructional." Nor does there appear to be any indication that a less well-trained teacher will do. All of the evidence suggests that better qualified teachers with a broader and deeper command of their subject are required. The success of programs has been closely linked with the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom and his attitude toward the program. Groups of students who have profited most from work with a program are those that have been taught by the most skillful teachers with the most positive attitudes toward programmed instruction. Whether students actually learn more from programmed materials or in a conventional classroom situation with a highly competent teacher is a question on which the evidence up to the present is conflicting, but some studies have shown that when the teacher and program work together they have produced better results than either one alone.

The use of a program offers the possibility of closer association between students and teacher. Materials with which students can work independently free the teacher for special work with smaller groups and for helping children who are having difficulties. In some situations it has been possible to combine three or four classes of children who are working on a program. As each child progresses at his own rate with the material, one or two teachers remain available for on-the-spot help for any child who gets stuck momentarily. The other teachers do remedial work in small groups or guide creative work with children who have completed certain portions of the program. It is possible also to reverse the procedure by assigning the remedial work or enrichment to a program while the teacher conducts the regular course. This is not particularly the role envisioned by programmers however.

One of the most serious problems facing schools interested in using programmed instruction is that of making it economically feasible. Presumably it would be possible for one set of materials to serve two, three or more students working at different points in the program, provided that the parts of the program were separable and any written answers could be placed on something other than the program itself. A machine with an answer-tape is one solution, but machines themselves add to the expense and, as many teachers have already discovered, are subject as any machinery to mechanical disorders. Machines of the type that can be used for the presentation of many different programs in several subject areas may be more practical money-wise, but they do not accommodate all programs. Foreign language programs, for example, frequently require special audio-visual presentation features.

Another advantage, and at the same time a disadvantage, of a machine is that it controls rigorously the presentation of the programmed material. Students cannot "cheat" by skipping frames or looking up answers before they have attempted their own response; but neither can they look back to check on points presented earlier in the course. Students have complained of this disadvantage. A program presented in book form allows the possibility of going back (as well as skipping ahead) but the arrangement of a programmed book is not usually one of easy reference. The problem of students attempting to cheat the program is greatly reduced, if not eliminated, when the program is used as an aid to classroom instruction rather than the central course.

Programs will have to be made more flexible and receptive to changes. A teacher adds, deletes, rearranges the content of his course and modifies his approach from year to year or even within a semester with relative ease. Such changes in programs are more difficult and costly.

The greater number of programs that have been used in schools are in the field of mathematics. Very few programmed courses in foreign languages are commercially available. and among those that are available the majority have been designed for use at the junior high school level or beyond. According to Alfred Fiks' list of foreign language programs which were available in 1966 only two had been prepared for use at the elementary school level.[5] A Spanish program for grades four through six presupposes fifty to seventy-five hours of audio-lingual training. No specific elementary grade level is indicated for a program in Hebrew whose aim is to teach reading and writing as well as the alphabet and some basic vocabulary. The paucity of programmed instruction for FLES is no indication necessarily that foreign language at the elementary school level cannot be taught, or at least aided by programmed materials. In the light of all that has been said up to this point, it would seem that with imaginative use of programming techniques the construction of suitable FLES programmed materials is possible.

Programmed instruction holds promises and problems. It needs and deserves to be regarded objectively. We can neither close our minds to it nor expect miracles of it. An attempt to surmise the future for programmed instruction in general, let alone the future of programmed instruction for FLES would be difficult; but it does seem likely that programmed instruction will join the list of highly useful teacher-aids. The prospects for its assuming a completely independent role in teaching, especially for the teaching of language, seem dim. The job of educating needs to be done with maximum efficiency within the minimum span of time and with whatever methods and materials are at our disposal. If programmed instruction has a contribution to make toward improving the quality of education no educator in any field at any level can afford to overlook it.

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[5] Albert I. Fiks, "Foreign Language Programmed Materials: 1966," Foreign Language and the Schools (Mildred R. Donoghue, ed.) (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1967), pp. 386-394. Reprinted by permission of the author from "Foreign Language Programmed Materials: 1966," The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 51, pp. 7-14, January, 1967.

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Section III

BILINGUALISM IN PRESENT AND FUTURE EDUCATION

Bilingualism, or the ability to use two languages fluently, is being accepted as an educational innovation in various parts of the country where two or more cultures exist. Rapid modes of travel, and cultural and commerical exchange with other countries have made bilingualism a valid educational objective.

In the first article, the author reviews the problems and practices in exisiting pilot programs of bilingualism.

An exploration of bilingualism in the literature with respect to its effect upon native language skills is made in the second paper. The author also reports on research and experimentation dealing with the effect of bilingual education upon pupil attitude and emotional stability.

In the third essay, the author deplores the fact that the ethnic identity of the many foreign language speakers in our country has not been encouraged, and states that this represents a loss in the full utilization of our country's human resources.

G. L.

EXPERIENCES IN BILINGUALISM

There is no clearly defined line over which a monolingual passes into bilingualism. Different degrees of bilingualism and combinations of kinds are as great in number as bilinguals themselves. In coordinate bilingualism, the two languages operate independently of each other, coming together rarely, if ever. At the other end of the extreme, in compound bilingualism the two languages are almost constantly and consciously in association with each other. At every point between these extremes combinations of the two systems are possible. Moreover, bilinguals are almost certain to function with varying degrees of efficiency in each of the language skills. Some bilinguals may be more proficient in the oral than in the graphic skills, or in the passive than the active skills. For others the reverse might be true.

Bilinguals, however they are defined, are not rare beings. One half of the earth's population is bilingual. Most bilinguals have acquired their dual language facility as children. Residence in a home or community where the two languages were spoken, or in a home in which the language spoken was different from that of the community, provided frequent enough encounters with the two languages to result in the acquisition of both. The second language learning of most bilinguals has taken place outside of the walls of the school, if we exclude areas such as Africa where children coming from a multiplicity of language backgrounds enforce the choice of a single language as the medium of instruction. In the latter case, the medium of instruction is a second language for most of the children and from the point of entry into school, or shortly thereafter, their academic progress is inseparable from their acquisition of the language used for instruction. Aside from these cases, however, schools which turn out bilinguals with regularity have been more the exception than the rule.

If schools have not been notably successful in producing bilinguals, one of the reasons is that bilingualism was never truly a goal. In Western education the traditional foreign language course of study was reserved, until quite recently, for an intellectual and societal elite. An acquaintance with a foreign language and its literature was a mark of refinement and polish. The move to teach great unselected numbers of people to "feel at home" linguistically and culturally in a community other than their own has grown out of the post-World War II era. This change of view toward the study of foreign languages has necessitated revisions in not only methods and materials, but in the organization of the school's curriculum as well. The efforts being made in individual schools in various parts of the world are noteworthy, even if the programs are still in the experimental stage. It would be premature to draw definite conclusions from their experiences at this point, but there do seem to be indications that, under certain conditions, it is possible to develop bilingualism in schools.

Within the past two decades, bilingual and multilingual schools have been established in several countries. Although some of them receive at least partial government support, all have been established to serve the interests of a fairly large and/or influential foreign language group or groups within a larger other-language community. As might be expected, these schools are very often located in cosmopolitan centers with relatively transient populations. Some of them, however, have been created in smaller local areas where two equally influential language groups reside more or less permanently and, in a few cases, have resided side-by-side for centuries.

Among the bilingual or multilingual schools situated in cosmopolitan centers are the German-American Community School in West Berlin, the Ecole Internationale in Geneva, the European Schools in Luxembourg and in Brussels, the Ecole Active Bilingue (Ecole Internationale de Paris) in Paris and the Ecole Internationale SHAPE at St. Germain, near Paris. All begin regular instruction in a second language in the first grade. In some of the schools which have nursery schools and kindergartens, the children get their initial second language experience as early as age three. Pre-first grade experience is usually limited to somewhat incidental exposure through association with bilingual or other-language classmates and staff. Most often in these nursery schools and kindergartens the exposure to the second language is reinforced and its acquisition is encouraged with songs, games, rhymes and stories in two languages.

The amount of time set aside for foreign language instruction beginning in the first grade is considerable, as compared to the time given to FLES programs in American schools. The minimum seems to be about forty-five minutes daily, with more in most cases. This minimum is increased rapidly by offering instruction in many of the basic subjects through the medium of the second language. Initial emphasis is always upon oral language and the children learn to read and write their native language before learning to read and write in the second language. Sometimes a third language is begun as early as third grade. Almost invariably there is the opportunity for students who remain in the school to continue their language study uninterruptedly through the end of their secondary schooling. Needless to say, there is strong support for other-language acquisition in the homes from which these youngsters come.

Bilingual schools located outside of cosmopolitan centers offer language programs no less ambitious in undertaking and no less impressive in accomplishment. The bilingual schools of Wales are a case in point. Although English has been the official language of Wales since the sixteenth century, Welsh is still the language of the majority in many rural areas of Wales. Active efforts to preserve the Welsh language have won a place for it in the school curriculum since the end of the nineteenth century. Despite this, Welsh has continued to lose ground steadily. While the greater majority of children from Welsh-speaking homes attained Welsh-English bilingualism in the past, very few English-speaking children ever became fluent in both languages. Significant is the fact that the Welsh-speaking children were taught partially through the medium of Welsh and partially through the medium of

English. In secondary school, they continued the study of their mother tongue but most of their other subjects were taught in English. The English-speaking children, while being taught Welsh as a second language, received all other instruction in English in both primary and secondary school.

During World War II and the years following, increased mobility brought numbers of English-speaking families into predominantly Welsh-speaking areas. Welsh was the exclusive medium of the schools in these areas. English-speaking children who were sent to the Welsh-medium infant schools usually became bilingual within three to six months after starting to school. At the same time, Welsh-speaking families newly settled in anglicized areas brought pressure for the establishment of Welsh-medium schools. Though the language of instruction was primarily Welsh, some subjects were taught in English. In a relatively short period of time, these schools earned high regard for their success in turning out pupils who were well-prepared, fluent and literate in two languages. Children of English-speaking parents were attracted in such numbers that they soon outnumbered the children from Welsh-speaking homes.

The language situation of Canada resembles that of Wales in many respects. Although English is the language of the majority, French has been recognized as an official language of Canada since 1848. The two language groups have dwelt side-by-side in this nation for approximately three centuries, with the minority strongly resisting absorption. Since French is a language spoken in many areas of the world outside of French Canada there does not exist the threat of possible extinction in the near future as is the case with Welsh. It is probably for this same reason, because both English and French are languages of world currency, that neither the English- nor French-medium schools of Canada have, in the past, achieved notable success in the teaching of the other as a second language. Only in the present decade have projects and programs to improve the teaching of the second language been forthcoming. Experimental studies in the public schools, proposals for the exchange of English-and French-speaking teachers within Canada, the organization of summer institutes for in-service language teachers, the preparation of teaching and evaluating materials are evidence of Canadian awareness of the need for improvement. Some private schools also, such as the Weston School in Westmont, Quebec are engaged in developing programs and materials to meet the broader goals of foreign language teaching for the second half of the twentieth century. The language course of the Weston school, like those of other schools already described, extends from the pre-primary classes through the entire length of primary instruction with some geography and history offered in the second language at the sixth and seventh grade levels.

Minority language groups are certainly no phenomenon upon the American scene. Throughout the nineteenth century, waves of immigrants settled in various regions of the United States. Where they gathered in large enough numbers, they sometimes succeeded in getting the local high school to offer the mother tongue as a foreign language. When this was not possible, private ethnic schools, some at the primary level, were established. Often these schools had a religious affiliation. These attempts to perpetuate ethnic differences and the language of the country of origin were not, by and large, successful and interest in them usually died out with the second generation. Although the lack of success in turning out bilinguals was probably due, in part, to teaching methods, the attitude of the outside community also had no doubt a deterrent effect upon success. Ethnic schools and languages other than English learned within the home were regarded as contrary to the American interest in that they delayed the process of assimilation.

Recognition of the benefits of bilingualism to individuals and to society has spurred the recognition of other-language groups within our midst as a valuable human resource. Public schools in many parts of the nation have instituted special programs designed to encourage and cultivate the use of languages other than English that are spoken in the homes from which the children come. In New York City, seventh grade science classes in Spanish for Puerto Rican youngsters have afforded reinforcement of skills in Spanish and the opportunity to learn and succeed in a subject for which they are ready intellectually but not linguistically in English. The academic and linguistic advantages have not been the only benefits of the program. Improvement in attendance, general achievement and attitude toward school has been noted in these youngsters. Behavior problems are fewer and parents of the children show more interest in the schools and in the progress of their offspring. Meanwhile, the progress of these children in English appears to be unimpaired by the time taken out of the school day for instruction in Spanish. The results of the experimental study with the Spanish-medium science classes have been encouraging enough to warrant the opening of an entire Spanish-English school in the Fall of 1968.

Similar programs for Spanish-speaking children of Mexican background have been in operation in Texas and in many other areas of the southwest. For the Spanish-speaking children of Cuban settlers in Florida all of the schools of Dade County enrolling one hundred or more of these children provide instruction in Spanish for a part of the school day. In those schools with the Spanish-S program (Spanish for Spanish-speakers) there are informal activities, stories, songs and games in the first and second grades. In most of these schools, regular instruction in Spanish begins in the third grades. In some schools the start must be delayed until fourth grade because of the unavailablity of a teacher. In grades three through seven a native Spanish-speaking teacher gives thirty-five minutes of instruction in Spanish daily and all Spanish-speaking children are required to take this instruction. In grades eight through twelve, the time is increased to fifty-five or sixty minutes per day and Spanish-S becomes elective. About thirty percent of the Spanish-speaking youngsters have been electing to continue Spanish-S beyond the seventh grade.

A second program of greater scope and ambition than Spanish-S is being tried at the Coral Way Elementary School in Dade County. This school is attended by approximately equal numbers of English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children. In the morning session, all children receive instruction through their mother tongue, whether French or Spanish. In the afternoon session, the children switch teachers and languages. Material that was learned in the mother tongue in the morning session is drilled in the second language in the afternoon with different problems and illustrations. All teachers in the program give instruction only through the language which they speak natively. This is true whether their native language is the mother tongue or the second language of the children with whom they are working. All of the teachers are trained in second language teaching methodology. Time is provided during the school day for each pair of teachers, one Spanish-speaking, the other English-speaking, to prepare the joint lessons for the two groups of children for which they are responsible.

In the fifth and sixth grade, some groups and entire classes of English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children have been mixed. With these groups there is no daily dividing of the school day between the mother tongue and the second language. Instead, instruction is offered exclusively in one language or the other, alternately, over varying spans of time from a few days to as much as three weeks.

Since this program has been in operation at the Coral Way

School a careful check has been kept on progress in basic skills and in the children's ability to learn through the second language. Tests, so far, have shown that achievement in basic skills is no less despite the fact that the children are receiving instruction in their native language for only one half of the school day. Differences between the ability to learn through the mother tongue and the second language have diminished each successive year. In this, the progress of the Spanish-speaking children has been somewhat more rapid.

The Coral Way Bilingual School Program, at approximately mid-point in a six-year plan, is still considered experimental. The test results obtained thus far with the children in this program do seem to indicate that they are becoming bilingual through the efforts of the school. The assertion made near the beginning of this discussion, that the development of bilingualism without the school appears, under certain conditions, to be a possibility, requires elaboration at this point. A brief look back at each of the schools reveals some common factors.

To begin with, there is strong home and community support for the schools and their language program. It would probably be safe to say that in every individual case, the child is enrolled at the school specifically because his parents want for him the opportunity to become bilingual. Secondly, the child's association with the second language embraces the entire length of his primary, in many cases his pre-primary, and secondary schooling. The second language is introduced early in the child's school career and the opportunity to continue without interruption until the end of secondary school is present. A third common factor is that only in the very earliest stages is the language treated as a study for itself. The second language rapidly assumes the role of a tool, a means of learning other subjects. A fourth condition that is present in each of these situations concerns the population of the school and/or the immediate community. In every case the children come into contact with classmates who are native-speakers of the language they are learning or they have other opportunities to come into contact with the language in the community. It would be difficult to assess positively the effect or importance of this last factor, but there can be little doubt that it serves as a powerful and immediate incentive for language learning.

Admittedly, the situations of these schools are unique in many respects and, obviously, all of the conditions that favor the development of bilingualism in these schools cannot be reproduced in linguistically isolated areas. Many of the linguistically isolated areas already have long-sequence foreign language programs which have the firm support of the community. The one possibility that has not yet been exploited nearly enough is the use of the second language as a medium for instruction. Mounting evidence shows that children not only can learn another subject through a second language, but that this use of the language is one of the best ways to acquire it. Moreover, the use of FLES as a medium of instruction seems the only logical and possible way to fulfill the hopes of those interested in FLES for a larger portion of the school day and, at the same time, to resolve the misgivings of the general curriculum specialists who are concerned about the fragmentation and crowding of the elementary school program. Language, even a second one, is primarily a means to other ends. When FLES is used as a means, it will gain its own ends.

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BILINGUALISM--IN THE LITERATURE

Bilingualism is a major educational concern as it is a growing phenomenon in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and Canada as well as a political problem in many areas in the world. The literature and research on bilingualism present several difficulties as little sustained or systematic basic research has been done. Much of what has been done involved small groups or individual children without isolating factors other than the bilingualism which might affect the results of the study. Too often the children studied have come from extremely culturally advantaged homes or from culturally and economically disadvantaged ones. Bilinguals have been defined differently in various studies, and the selection of bilinguals has even been made, in some studies, on the basis of their surnames.

Another problem is presented by Martin K. Chen who says, "Despite the profusion of studies in bilingualism however, our understanding of the nature and effects of bilingualism remains fragmentary and limited. This is so because with the exception of a relatively few studies, the researchers have failed in most cases to isolate bilingualism as a variable from its larger context of biculturalism."[1] James P. Soffietti in an article titled "Bilingualism and Biculturalism" indicates that most of the practical

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[1] Martin K. Chen, "Intelligence and Bilingualism as Independent Variates," The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 33 Spring, 1965, p. 243.

practical situations referred to as "bilingual" involve more than the "habitual use of two languages." There are not only two distinct patterns of "linguistic habits," but also distinct patterns of "cultural habits" in all of their anthropoligical meaning. That is what he refers to as "biculturalism."[2]

In addition to the problems of bilingualism and biculturalism, there are two distinct types of bilingual speakers. A compound system is one "in which two languages constitute simply two different ways of encoding the same set of referential meanings" while the coordinate system is one in which "the referential meanings encoded in the two languages differ to a considerable sense."[3] "Compound bilinguals tend to mix the words and constructions of one language with another within the same sentence," says Donald G. Dugas, head of the Conservation of Multilingual Resources branch of FLICS. "Coordinate bilinguals speak two languages independently of each other."[4]

In discussing the effects of bilingualism on native language skills, one should distinguish between children who speak one language at home and must learn another to use in school and in the community; and those children who are given instruction in a second language at school, but whose native language is the language of the community and of the school.

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[2] James P. Soffietti, "Bilingualism and Biculturalism," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 44, October 1960, p. 275.

[3] N. L. Gage, editor, Handbook of Research on Teaching, Rand McNally & Co. (Chicago) 1963, p. 1085.

[4] "Bilingualism and Language Learning," School and Society, Vol. 95, Summer 1967, p. 294.

J. Vernon Jensen in discussing the effects of childhood bilingualism refers primarily to studies of children of the former types when he reports that, "Many observers and investigators conclude that childhood bilingualism, forced or voluntary, results in many disadvantages. Numerous handicaps may accrue to the individual in his speech development, over-all language development, intelligence and educational progress, and emotional stability."[5] He further states that in learning more than one language people fall short of completely 'correct articulation' and pronunciation in one or both languages and gives the following as problem areas: "variations in breathing patterns, voicing habits, aspiration, tension, general movement of the speech musculature, placement of the tongue, length of vowels, stress, rhythm and intonal patterns, and transitions between sounds."[6]

In cases where the native language is the language of the community and the school and pupils are given instruction in a second language, there are some studies concerned with achievement in the native language. Esther Worl Lopato, in an unpublished Ph.D. dissertation at New York University in 1961, found that no adverse effects on school achievement of third grade children resulted from instruction in conversational French. Similarly Johnson, Flores and

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[5] J. Vernon Jensen, "Effects of Childhood Bilingualism," Elementary English, February 1962, p. 133.

[6] Ibid. p. 133.

Ellison reported in the Modern Language Journal in 1963 that they found no adverse effects on school achievement of fourth grade pupils resulting from instruction in conversational Spanish.

Research on bilingual children whose native language is not the school language "has generally shown that they suffer from a language handicap when intelligence is measured by verbal tests. Some evidence has been produced to support the hypothesis that the language handicap of bilingual children decreases as they progress through school. The present study provides evidence that supports both conclusions and introduces the possibility that a bilingual environment may be an asset to verbal proficiency in the intermediate grades."[7]

In the spring of 1965, an interesting study was reported in California with Chinese-American junior high school children on the relationship between intelligence and bilingualism. The possible effects of biculturalism were controlled by using only children of Chinese parentage. "Since the entire Chinese community belonged to one natives' guild or another, even the most Americanized Chinese homes in the area maintained Chinese customs and beliefs."[8] The "most striking finding in this study is the fact that when intelligence and testing condition are both held constant, the monolinguals are superior by far to the bilinguals in both reading comprehension and reading vocabulary."[9] Mr. Chen, the author, explains this by saying that the bilinguals who have to contend with two languages that are structurally different have had less time to progress from syncretism to analysis, while the monolinguals are more successful in making the transition from the whole to the part. He makes the following recommendation, "In view of these conclusions, it is suggested that for languages which differ greatly from English syntactically, the introduction of a second language in the elementary curricula be delayed until such a time as it can be demonstrated that the children have learned their English skills reasonably well...Earlier introduction of such a second language might hinder the children's efforts to mature beyond the stage of verbal syncretism to the detriment of their total psychological development."[10]

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[7] Jack E. Kittell, "Intelligence Test Performance of Children from Bilingual Environments," The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 64, November 1963, p. 76.

[8] Martin K. Chen, "Intelligence and Bilingualism as Independent Variates in a Study of Junior High School Students of Chinese Descent," The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 33, No. 3, Spring 1965, p. 244.

Most of these studies have related the effects of bilingualism to some phase of the reading process. Harold D. Love reported in the Journal of Developmental Reading a study "concerning the effects of bilingualism on the initial hearing and observation of a word, and the effects that the auditory and word discrimination skills would have on the performance of the child in reading and spelling."[11]

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[9] Ibid. p. 246.

[10] Martin K. Chen, Ibid. p. 249

[11] Harold D. Love, "Auditory Discrimination, Spelling and Reading with Bilingual and Monolingual Children," Journal of Developmental Reading, Vol. VI, No. 3, Spring 1963, p. 212.

The experimental group consisted of fifteen public school students in grades four and five in Thibodaux, Louisiana who spoke French and English. The control group of the same size were English monolinguals from South Central Louisiana. "The experimental group made significant gains only in auditory discimination skills over the control group. There were no significant gains made by either group in spelling. Significant gains were made in reading by both groups."[12]

In another study with one hundred sixty-four children from six French schools of Montreal, the effects of bilingualism on the intellectual functioning of children and the relations between bilingualism, school achievement, and the student's attitudes to the second language community were examined. "Contrary to expectation, bilinguals performed better than monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal parts of the tests."[13] The report concludes that the structure of the intellect of the bilinguals appears to be more diversified than that of the monolinguals, and the bilinguals, instead of suffering from 'mental confusion' or a 'language handicap' are profiting from 'language asset.'

The trends which seem to appear from the mass of experimentation with bilingual and monolingual children and the effect of bilingualism on native language skills seem to depend upon whether the native language is the language of the home, but not of the school or community; or whether the native language is the language of all three--the home, the school, and the community. In cases of the former type, bilinguals seem to be at a disadvantage; in the latter situation, there seems to be no adverse effect of second language instruction and there may be certain advantages.

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[12] Ibid., p. 214.

[13] Elizabeth Peal and Wallace E. Lambert, "The Relation of Bilingualism to Intelligence," Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, No. 546, 1962, Vol. 76, No. 21.

The same sort of trend is evident in the effect of bilingualism on the child's emotional attitudes. Mr. Frank M. Cordasco discusses the effect of American education on children whose native language is not English. "In its efforts to assimilate all of its charges, the American school assaulted (and, in consequence, very often destroyed) the cultural identity of the child; it forced him to leave his ancestral language at the schoolhouse door; it developed in the child a haunting ambivalence of language, of culture, of ethnicity, and of personal self-affirmation."[14]

In exploring the adverse effects of bilingualism, J. Vernon Jensen had earlier stated, "It has been asserted by many that the bilingual child may develop serious emotional instability and social maladjustment. His frustrations arising from his ineffectiveness as a communicator, and ridicule and teasing which society may direct at him may be very damaging to him, particularly if he is a weak personality to begin with."[15]

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[14] Frank M. Cordasco, "The Challenge of the Non-English-Speaking Child in American Schools," School and Society, Vol. 96, No. 2306, March 30, 1968, p. 199.

[15] J. Vernon Jensen, "Effects of Childhood Bilingualism," Elementary English, February, 1962, p. 136.

On the other hand, the monolingual child who starts learning a second language within the monocultural setting seems to be affected quite differently. According to James P. Soffietti, "A person learning a second language in a monocultural setting will not automatically learn a whole new set of cultural patterns and develop cultural conflicts or accents....Rarely do his meanings extend beyond the simple denotation to include emotional and cognitive associations common to all the participants in the culture where that particular language is spoken...Learning French or German or Urdu, in a monocultural setting will no more create problems of intellectual and social nature than learning Esperanto."[16]

The effects of bilingualism are important in our country, but are even more critical in the developing countries of the world. Few people in those countries can use their native language in school. Most of them have to learn a second language to communicate at governmental levels, and for some, the language of instruction in higher education is their third language.

There have been several interesting attempts within the United States to teach a variety of subjects in a foreign language. Several programs of instruction in Spanish for native Spanish-speaking children are being done in Florida and in the Southwest; some of these are: Del Rio, Laredo, New Mexico, San

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[16] James P. Soffietti, "Bilingualism and Biculturalism," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 44, October 1960, p. 277.

Antonio, Zapata, Edinburg, and El Paso. Most of them involve instruction in Spanish with English being introduced gradually as a second language.

At the high school level, a movement is underway to introduce studies in a variety of subjects with a foreign language as the language of instruction. Arthur J. Cullen in the April 1968 issue of the National Education Association Journal suggests that "after two or three years of studying a foreign language, high school students get the option of studying history, biology, mathematics, and other subjects in that (the second) language rather than continuing with advanced grammar and composition or literature."[17] He continues, "When that happens--and it will--the student is becoming bicultural; his bilingualism is opening the door to a better understanding of different values, approaches and reactions among different cultures and different ways of thinking and expressing his thoughts...The goal of foreign language study must not be merely bilingualism; it must include biculturism. The vocabulary, grammatical structure, and stylistics of a language as revealed in subject-matter courses will provide insight into the philosophy, attitudes, and drives of the people who speak it."[18]

"The FLICS project will try teaching subject matter courses in foreign languages, as well as reviewing the methods now used to teach English to non-English speakers and to teach foreign languages to students whose mother tongue is English."[19]

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[17] Arthur J. Cullen, "A New Option for Foreign Language Students?" National Education Association Journal, Vol. 57, No. 4, April, 1968, p. 13.

[18] Ibid., p. 13.

Three rather new developments are underway in the field of bilingual research. In addition to the language problem, "FLICS will examine the socio-psychological and attitude problems generated by teaching subject matter in English to students whose mother tongue is not English."[20]

A second development is a number of proposed bills in Congress to deal with the problems of the non-English speaking child. "The Scheurer Bill (H. R. 9840) provides a practicable vehicle to confront the critical needs of the non-English-speaking child. It provides for planning and development of programs...and development and dissemination of special instructional materials;... intensive early childhood programs and bilingual and bicultural education programs for elementary and secondary school children to acquaint students from both English-speaking and non-English-speaking homes with the history and culture associated with each language..."[21]

The third development is a new international center on bilingualism established at Laval University in Quebec, Canada under a $400,000.00 grant by the Ford Foundation. Professor W. F. Mackey, director of the university's Division of Pedagogical Linguistics, and a leading authority on bilingualism, will head the staff. They plan to conduct research on "linguistic factors in second-language learning and use."[22] The center will also serve as a clearinghouse for worldwide information on problems of bilingualism.

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[19] "Bilingualism and Language Learning," School and Society, Vol. 95, Summer, 1967, p. 294.

[20] Ibid., p. 294.

[21] Frank M. Cordasco, "The Challenge of the Non-English-Speaking Child in American Schools," School and Society, Vol. 96, No. 2306, March 30, 1968, p. 199.

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[22] International Research Center, School and Society, Vol. 95, Summer, 1967, p. 294.

ETHNIC GROUPS AND LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE

Efforts to bolster the National Defense through increasing the foreign language proficiency of American citizens brought a paradoxical situation into a sharp focus: while vast human and material resources were being marshalled in an effort to bring the national foreign language quotient from near zero to a level which must still be considered minimal, little attention was being given to preserving or exploiting the impressive linguistic reservoir still available, in spite of persistant neglect, among some 20 million American residents of foreign birth or extraction.[1]

An oversimplified appraisal of the past and present situation suggests that the linguistic and cultural orientation of immigrants represent positioning at either of two extreme poles with no provision for gradual transition. One pole, typified by total linguistic and cultural segregation resulting in native language maintenance and the preservation of ethnic identity, provides little opportunity for acculturation and mastery of English. The other pole, typified by total immersion in the English speaking sphere and in American "values" results in residual language maintenance and rejection of ethnic identity.

The latter polarity, long dominant in the United States is not necessarily to be construed as the by-product of an insidious chauvinistic design. It is cited rather as an observable phenomenon explained at least in part by the possibility that the newcomer to the United States (and his offsprings) reacting positively to the new environment are not unwilling to succumb to the seduction of the promised land.

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[1] For an over-view of the problem see Theodore Andersson's, "A New Focus on the Bilingual Child" and Joshua A. Fishman's, "The Status and prospects of Bilingualism in the United States." Both articles appear in the Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLIX, No. 3 (March, 1965).

The massive and, in some cases, total erosion of ethnic identity manifest in the second and third generation American, is due in part perhaps to the fact that preservation, thereof, was often not totally a matter of choice for the first generation: segregation was perhaps less a manifestation of a desire to preserve the ways and customs of the "old country" than a necessary grouping for solidarity in the midst of the hostile and often impenetrable mainstream of American life.[2]

The isolation of first generation immigrants often insured native language maintenance to such an extent that little opportunity was available for learning English as a second language. The culturally isolated "foreigner" thus found himself further disadvantaged by a language barrier as he tried to assimilate into the American economic scene. Limited command of English was often interpreted as the stigma of inferior cultural development and of incapacity in the economic area. A person speaking halting or "peculiar" English was often assumed to be "backward" and poor.

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[2] The point is developed by Chester C. Christian, Jr., in "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child," Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLIX, No. 3 (March, 1965), p. 160 ff.

> We show our disregard for other languages by not learning them. We tend to equate Hispanic culture, for example, with the underdeveloped, disadvantaged standard of living Spanish speakers among us without taking thought as to what is responsible for this depressed living standard. It is the culmination of irony that where Spanish-speaking children are at an age that would make it easy and relatively inexpensive to help them to maintain and improve their language we do all we can to destroy it.[3]

It is no wonder that the second generation (and we include in this group the young immigrant of school age) responded to the socialization process with such intensity as to willfully reject the parent's cultural and linguistic heritage. A systematic analysis of the erosion of cultural and linguistic allegiance in the ethnic community is elaborated by Fishman.[4] Except for the limited number attending ethnical (often denomination) schools, the great majority suffered through the trauma of attending the American school and surviving the experience of being exposed to instruction in the different subject areas in an idiom which, at first, they understood with difficulty or not at all. The operation, though painful, was usually successful--and recovery from the old, debilitating ethnic ties was most often complete and irrevocable.

> By birth, he must speak the language of his parents, because he has to communicate with them. By law, he must speak English, for he has to spend at least ten years of his life in a school system in which English is the only medium of instruction. To the extent that he suffers as a result of the concomitant pressures put on him, he is a victim of this social situation into which he has been

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[3] Anderson, op. cit., p. 158.

[4] Fishman, op. cit., pp. 146-150.

> born. He himself has done nothing to create it, he doesn't understand it, and we should have no cause for surprise when he reacts against his parents or his teachers or both.[5]

This oversimplification of the process of "Americanization" typifies the acculturation of "foreigners" during the period of extensive immigration from Europe. Currently, the United States is faced with the problems emerging from an influx of Spanish speakers into American society.

> Coming a little closer to home, we must confess to our seventh education sin: our failure to encourage our Spanish-speaking children to speak Spanish, as we commonly do in school and on the playground, and our failure to respect the great Hispanic culture of which our Spanish speakers are modest representatives. This is part of an unthinking, inconsiderate, and self-defeating national policy to destroy non-English languages and cultures in the United States--whether French, German, and Spanish, or Eskimo, Navaho, and Hawaiian.[6]

There are indications that the attending crises are being viewed from a different perspective and that decisions are being influenced by new attitudes. The following arguments are being adduced:

1. Language maintenance by the respective ethnic groups represents a linguistic resource which we can ill afford wantonly to ignore or to suppress. The following quotation serves to document this position:

> It was customary in former times for ethnic leaders to plead for an end to the general apathy which day by day was rapidly bringing about the disappearance of cultural

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[5] Christian, op. cit., p. 160

[6] Andersson, op. cit., p. 158

pluralism in America. Today, just as their voices were being heard less and less in the land, a renaissance of interest in modern languages is manifestly upon us and a revolution in methodology is yielding impressive results. It seems clear that much could now be done by the Government and by private organizations to lend support to ethnic groups in their efforts to maintain their linguistic and cultural heritage. Only time will tell whether this end can be achieved in a lasting way in our country. The language teacher, through his understanding of the ethnic child's attitudes and real needs, can play a major role in exploiting this important linguistic resource in the national interest.[7]

2. The maintenance of ethnic values, customs, etc., is necessary to the immigrant's self-image at least to the transition point in his acculturation where he can comfortably operate with the overlay of American culture impinging on his personal and social activities.

> .....the fact has often been ignored that to human beings born into any language and culture, that language and culture represent their own existence as human beings--their own particular way of being human--and that taking this away from them is in a very real sense an attempt to take away their lives--an attempt to destroy what they are and to make them a different kind of being. This is true even when they are willing to assist in this process of destruction.[8]

3. America is strong and will tend to grow stronger to the extent that the pluralistic nature of its society is encouraged as a means of counteracting the homogenizing effects of modernism, media, automation, etc.

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[7] Gerard J. Brault, "Some Misconceptions about Teaching American Ethnic Children Their Mother Tongue," Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLVIII, No. 2 (February, 1964), p. 71.

[8] Christian, Ibid., p. 160.

> Heretofore, the problem of the acculturation of the bilingual child has been considered largely a local problem. It has recently become a problem of national concern largely because of its intimate relationship to other national programs--with the civil rights program, the war on poverty, the attempt to establish equal economic opportunity for everyone, to adjust to automation and to the disappearance of jobs except for the educated, and to the betterment of our image abroad.[9]

Endorsement of the above tenets has resulted in major curricular revisions, impressive at the prototypical levels, involving the following:

1. Beginning of subject matter instruction in the native language thus removing the language barrier as an obstacle to learning.

> Nevertheless, educational practice in the United States supports the 'ethnocentric illusion' that for a child born in this country English is not a foreign language, and virtually all instruction in schools is through the medium of English.[10]

2. Gradual shift to English as the language of instruction as a means of mastering English as communication too.
3. Continuing some course work in the native language as a means of insuring foreign language maintenance.[11]

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[9] Christian, ibid., p. 162

[10] A Bruce Gaarder, "Teaching the Bilingual Child: Research, Development, and Policy, Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLIX, No. 2 (March, 1965), p. 166.

[11] For further detail on curriculum design and content see Andersson, op. cit., pp. 158-160, Gaarder, op. cit., pp. 168, 173, Pauline M. Rojas, "Instructional Materials and Aids to Facilitate Teaching the Bilingual Child. Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLIX, No. 4 (April, 1965), pp. 237-9 and the reference to materials available for Franco-Americans in Gerard J. Brault's "Some Misconceptions About Teaching American Ethnic Children Their Mother Tongue," Modern Language Journal, Vol. XLVIII, No. 2 (February, 1964), p. 69.

4. Providing a greater latitude for dialectical differences apparent in the use of the native language.

> The dialectal traits of immigrant languages are, of course, grossly exaggerated by many language teachers who fail to appreciate the essentially diverse nature of language and the artificiality of standardization. Dialectal pronunciation, which is doubtless the major source of irritation for teachers, is hardly a phenomenon restricted to immigrant languages.[12]

In the opinion of the writer, the puristic attitude of French teachers in the States has to a great extent resulted in the unfortunate neglect of French-speaking Canada as a vast cultural and linguistic resource.

5. A systematic cross-disciplinary attempt to expose the student to the significant features of his native cultural heritage (historical, social, anthropological as well as literary) with special emphasis on dispelling the myth of denigrating sterotypes.

That such a curricular design will facilitate acculturation while insuring language maintenance is unquestionable. The process can be further vitalized if an element of reciprocity is involved, if the American student gives token that he is willing not only to accept the foreign speaker but even to meet him halfway, that he is anxious to respect the latter's cultural heritage and share his language experiences in the foreign idiom. In this sense, learning a foreign language becomes a societal function.

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[12] Brault, *ibid*., p. 68.

Identifying and "qualifying" teachers of the appropriate ethnic group needs the attention of the profession as an important step to facilitate student-student and student-teacher interaction.

We presume that the earlier the area of commonality is identified the better. We submit that the early grades may not be too soon.

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Section IV

WHAT IS THERE TO BE SEEN IN THE CRYSTAL BALL?

In any attempt to engage in educational conjecture concerning the future of FLES, it should be noted that both idealism and imagination are needed. This section provides a wide range of ideas about the future of FLES.

In the first essay, a proposed plan for foreign language instruction from the kindergarten level to the college level is developed. This might be a starting point for getting national consensus on the scope, sequence and content of foreign language instruction.

The author of the second article examines the seemingly prophetic theories of Marshall McLuhan. Foreign language educators may profit from an exploration into the multi-sensory world he depicts with an eye toward discovering the child's present and future needs and then, making provision to meet these needs.

The author of the third paper focuses upon the FLES classroom of 1987, unveiling a wide range of the materials, equipment and "educational immersion" which may or may not be in store for the FLES pupil of the future. How do you view the FLES classroom of the future?

G. L.

The Sequence - Kindergarten to College

In preparing this sequential development of Foreign Language from Kindergarten through the University level, it has been the authors' aim to demonstrate the future role of FLES in a well-articulated foreign language program.

Many educators still feel that the value of FLES is questionable; however, this is a short-sighted view of what should be one indispensible link in the chain of articulated language development. For FLES can only continue to be effective if it truly links the introduction of language learning to the more sophisticated and purposeful acquisition of the basic skills. Therefore, it has been our purpose to remove the focus from FLES alone and give an overview of FLES in its proper perspective as a link in this chain, or sequence.

Our proposed sequence will consist of the following levels of competency:

K)
1) Pre-Level I
2)

3)
4) Level I
5)

6)
7) Level II
8)

9)
10) Level III

11) Level IV
12)

13)
14) Level V (Phase A)

15)
16) Level V (Phase B)

PRE-LEVEL I

This initial stage of language learning will be designated as a "language lead-in" and will serve as the basis for behavioral development or a prelude to the commencement of listening and speaking skills as presented in the dialog-centered materials presently available for Level I

The authors feel that the K-2 sequence should be devoted to experiences that will take fullest advantage of the commonly accepted psycholinguistic construct that the pre-school child possesses the kinetic ability to produce the necessary sounds of any or all languages. This ability, which declines by the age of six, is impervious to interference from the native patterns not yet fully imprinted. Therefore, the activities of Pre-Level I will be designed to reinforce those sounds peculiar to the phonemic system of the target language.

Concurrent with these activities, the learner will be systematically bombarded with tightly structured drill which must not be considered as communicative in nature. In other words, the phonemic patterns of the language are being imprinted at the pre-cognitive level. Nelson Brooks alluded to this incorporation of structured drill at the earliest possible stage in his statement that structured drill makes no pretense of being communication. "It is exercise in structural dexterity undertaken solely for the sake of practice, in order that performance may become habitual and automatic." (1960)

This tenet was initially expressed in the findings of Gesell (1940), in that language is first of all "play" or a social response without a specific communicative aspect.

In preparing the learner for Level I, the authors feel that the above psychological construct is in accordance with what Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960) have called "meta-plans." While the meta-plan must be kept in mind as the integral whole or Gestalt, the parts of the whole, i. e., the phonemic system of the second language must be systematically presented in order to provide the foundation for the "plans to generate plans" of grammatical usage.

LEVEL I

Level I will consist of a continuation and expansion of those items and activities introduced in the prior learning phase. For the first time the learner will be introduced to structure patterns in basic dialogue form as a means of interpersonal communication. In this level the learner will be expected to manipulate the common form patterns which constitute the basic building blocks of the structure of the language. Only linguistically sound and culturally valid items should be used.

Near the midpoint of this level, the learner will be introduced to the basic sound system of the language through the alphabet to acquaint him with the orthographical configuration of the language before viewing the written word.

The skills of reading and writing will then be introduced simultaneously by utilizing only structures which the child has previously mastered.

If at the end of this level, a child can, as Nelson Brooks states in Language and Language Learning (1960), "recognize and employ correctly the forms that are appropriate," then he is ready to embark upon the stream of Level II.

LEVEL II

Level II must, of necessity, begin with a recapitulation of all previously acquired habits, but this is not to be construed as a "déjà vu" experience but rather a broadened and expanded basis upon which the learner may continue the development of the four basic skills.

The role of listening and speaking is not diminished; reading continues to encompass only material previously mastered; and writing will involve dictation, completion, and recombination of drilled oral patterns.

Structure is continually re-entered and reinforced with explanation in the mother tongue only when necessary for comprehension.

At the end of Level II, the learner is expected to be adept and efficient with all structures in his immediate linguistic environment.

LEVEL III

The advent of Level III should find the student totally immersed in the language. From this point he should be able to follow the spoken language at a moderate pace, to demand clarification or explanation within the bounds of learned structure, and to assume the responsibility of originating new avenues of discovery.

Now that the learner has acquired a substantial degree of facility in the four skills, the teacher should assume the role of an equal partner in the educative adventure leading the student into a deeper understanding of the total culture of the people whose language he is acquiring.

His command of the structure of the language is now such that the use of grammatical analysis will be beneficial to the heightened control and manipulation of his language schemata.

Until this point, the learner has existed within the bounds of an adequate but artificial environment which sought to synthesize the true culture.

The learner is now ready for an advanced placement program which will transport him for progressively longer periods of time to an educational institution in French Canada which will participate in a type of twinning program such as is now in the pilot stage at the College of Mount St. Joseph on the Ohio under the direction of Sister Ruth Adelaide. (Note: See FLES Report 1967)

LEVEL IV

Level IV will be a phase of continued expansion and further exploration of areas of personal interest to the learner.

At this level, the educational year will be extended for those highly motivated individuals who, accompanied by their teacher, will take advantage of participating in an educationally sound summer foreign language program abroad. These programs will continue to combine study and day-to-day confrontation in the natural environment of the language.

LEVEL V

Level V will consist of two phases for the singular student who wishes to incorporate the foreign language into his career goals.

During the first two years at the university level, the learner will divide his time equally between his home university and a cooperative university in France. This will allow for the acquisition and comparison of basic courses in both his mother tongue and the milieu of the second language.

The concluding phase in this sequence of foreign language learning will place the student in a highly specialized educational institution of his choice where French is the native language. At the conclusion of his studies, he then might be granted a bachelor's degree by the sponsoring U. S. institution and also a diploma by the French institution.

While realizing that several facets of this long-range foreign language sequence are still in the conceptual stage, the authors feel that if present trends continue, such as the previously mentioned pilot program in twinning, the several NDEA summer programs for undergraduate prospective foreign language teachers, and Notre Dame's recent program in cooperation with the Université Catholique de l'oest at Angers, France, then it may be that we have actually been conservative in our projections.

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PERCEPTION AND MEDIA RE:
MARSHALL McLUHAN

There is more to be learned outside of the classroom than in it. Books are now art forms and, as instruments of learning, have become obsolete. So claims Marshall McLuhan, the erudite, insouciant prophet of the age of electronic communication. He set a number of scholars, educators and "ad" men on their ear (also eye, nose and throat--if we adhere to his multi-sensory approach) with the publication of The Gutenberg Galaxy, Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man, The Medium is the Massage, and a number of articles on mass communication media. He has challenged the power of the printed word, the efficacy of books to educate and most of the hallowed traditions and revered foundations of educational dogma. The prolific Mr. McLuhan has evoked or provoked a wealth of response. Even his most sincere detractors, however, grudgingly, credit McLuhan with shedding light, rousing interest or at least alerting the academic world to the unique quality and import of electronic communication media. Not that he has addressed himself solely to the academic community. Though he has taken dead aim on the business of education, his theories have implications for any area involving communications. Indeed, he applies his theories to every aspect of daily life.

To paraphrase McLuhan without making a judgment on what he is saying is not easy. But, in short, oversimplified form, the basic premise of McLuhanism is that our society and those of the past have been influenced more by the media employed than by the content conveyed (He includes any information-purveying article such as clothing, clocks, money, etc.). All media are extensions of one or more human faculties. The ax is an extension of the hand, the wheel of the foot, the book of the eye, the radio of the ear, and T. V. of the central nervous system. In order to understand change, we must understand the way in which these media function as environments. The extension of one of our faculties alters the relationship and balance of the senses, our performance and reactions and finally, the way in which we view the world. This is the importance of the medium itself.

The alphabet and the printed word, an extension of the eye, overthrew the dominion of oral communication and completely altered our sensory balance. We became visually oriented--to see was to believe. Spoken language was no longer the sole medium for the exchange of ideas. It was now possible to experience the stimulation of another man's thoughts without direct contact. Individualism, the private viewpoint, non-involvement, and detachment were a result. We could observe from a distance of both time and space experience without becoming involved. THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE AND PRINT SIGNALED THE END OF THE PRE-LITERATE, TRIBAL SOCIETY.

The prescribed order of words, one necessarily following another in a horizontal straight line, exerted an enormous influence on modes of thought and reactions of man to his world. He now tended to reduce everything to its component parts. The alphabet and the arbitrary symbols for meaning were the first steps in the fragmentation of our activities. Step-by-step, "specialism," the habit of thinking in fragments, bits and pieces, became, literally, the order of the day, as one outgrowth of the linear order of the printed text. Uniformity, consistency, and continuity of the sequential linear form led to assembly line procedure, developments in the physical sciences and the ascendancy of logic.

The electronic age has brought us back to the pre-literate tribal world. What McLuhan calls its "allatonceness" has removed barriers of time and space, throwing us all into a "global village." The immediateness and community of attention of electric media have reversed the effect of print. As the candidate tells us, eye-to-eye, his thoughts, we are aware of our participation as one of a vast audience. We are again in-person observers. Experience involves us because we are there. As print prompted an explosion, T. V. had brought an "implosion." McLuhan states that T. V. involves all of the senses and that our electronic or electric technology has reduced the primacy of the visual. "Seeing is believing" has now become passé. "At the high speeds of electric communication, purely visual means of apprehending the world are no longer possible; they are just too slow to be relevant or effective."[1] T. V. demands total involvement--it wraps around the viewer. Viewer, according to McLuhan, is not quite accurate. He feels that the viewer is in reality the screen on which the meaningless array of three million dots per second which make up the T. V. image, are projected. The viewer selects only a small number of dots to form a picture, supplying what is lacking to make the image meaningful. This makes T. V. a "cool" medium.

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[1] Marshall McLuhan and Quentin Fiore. The Medium Is the Massage. (New York: Bantam Books, 1967), p. 63.

Marshall McLuhan classifies all media as either hot or cool. The cool medium requires involvement, forces the viewer, listener or user to fill in the blank spaces of the meager information supplied. A hot medium provides well-defined information. Movies are hot, T. V. cool; radio is hot, the telephone cool; a photograph is hot, a cartoon cool; a lecture is hot, a seminar cool. People, also, can project a hot or cool image. T. V. commercials are becoming more and more cool. Story line is minimal; the viewer must supply it. The cool T. V. technique has had its effect on movies and current writing even though T. V. itself is not regarded as an influence. "Each new technology creates an environment that is itself regarded as corrupt and degrading. Yet the new one turns its predecessor into an art form."[2] The old media becomes the content of the new. Movies are the content of T. V., books were the content of movies, etc.

In spite of the immediate accessibility of the present through the courtesy of electric media, we tend to live in the just past past. WE ARE DRIVING INTO THE FUTURE LOCKING BACKWARD. It is this "rear view mirror approach" which McLuhan claims is especially prevalent in education. "In an age when even such staid institutions as banks and insurance companies have been altered almost beyond recognition, today's typical classroom--in physical layout, methods and content of instruction--still resembles the classroom of thirty or more years ago."[3] Instead of providing an active involved role for the student who is participating and wholly involved in his out of school environment, the educational system maintains the same information dispensing posture as it has for generations. The immediate and total electronic global environment into which the student is now "plugged in" has little relationship to the print oriented, fragmented, linear school world. The student of the T. V. generation has not been molded by the tyranny of print. His sense of balance is not dominated by the visual. It is this non-reality and lack of currentness of the school approach which McLuhan sites as a prime cause of school drop-outs. "Young people are looking for a formula for putting on the universe-participation mystique. They do not look for detached patterns--for ways of relating themselves to the world, a la nineteenth century."[4]

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[2] Marshall McLuhan. Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man. (New York: McGraw Hill, 1964), p. ix.

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[3] Marshall McLuhan and George B. Leonard. "The Future of Education, The Class of 1968," Look, 31 (February 21, 1967), p. 23.

[4] McLuhan and Fiore, op. cit., p. 114.

It would appear, if we are to believe McLuhan, that we are suffering not a generation gap, but a MEDIA GAP.

It is the role of the school and the educator now, he says, to provide the student with "cool" means of learning; he must be self-taught and self-motivated. His motivation will depend on seeing the relationship between what is available to him in the schools and what is needed in the world. "The signals say that something is out of phase, that most present-day schools may be lavishing vast and increasing amounts of time and energy preparing students for a world that no longer exists."[5]

What does McLuhan see as a solution for the school of the future? Of prime importance will be an alteration or shift of the traditional roles of student and teacher with emphasis on interaction. The teacher will be the director, generating interest and providing the means and opportunity for the student to teach himself. Responsibility for learning will rest on the learner and there will be a change of emphasis from instruction to discovery--not the controlled pre-determined discovery of the "inquiry method" but real probing into unsolved problems. Two way T. V. will aid students in expanding horizons and in gathering new experiences. Computers will not only serve up a diet of personalized programmed instruction and individual scheduling for each student but will also assume the role of memory bank. Students will focus their attention on the ground rules and premises of each discipline and little on the content. Since the accumulation of facts will be the province of a machine and, therefore, immediately accessible worldwide, the use of human memory will change. "Our electrically-configured world has forced us to move from the habit of data classification to the mode of pattern recognition."[6] The age of specialization will have passed and the lines between disciplines will be indistinct. "Paradoxically, automation makes liberal education mandatory."[7] In spite of the fact that McLuhan has tolled the knell of the individualist each of his re-tribalized, totally involved students is going to be an extremely individual product, his education specific and unique.

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[5] McLuhan and Leonard, op. cit., p. 23.

In assessing the influence and impact of the McLuhan outlook on what we are doing or what we should be doing in education, we are faced with overload. There is just too much. M. M. has bombarded us with theory and projection all of which he has given equal weight and value. Selective browsing and consumption is the better part of valor, since it would seem that there may be other implications for the T. V. generation added to those McLuhan suggests.

John Steel Smith has explored the simultaneousness of modern media (reading with T. V. and hi fi on, etc.) "But because of the complex revolution in communications that has overtaken us in the past half century, we are able to absorb many kinds of instruction and entertainment, a new variety of experience, at the same time. Simultaneousness has become possible in our daily lives. It is characteristic of our culture."[8] These statements certainly do not refute McLuhan's premise that the electronic age involves total sense experience, but it may suggest something other than his resultant total involvement. One of the basics of McLuhanism is that the immediacy and the sensory impact of T. V. has produced a turned-on, involved generation and has resulted in multi-sensory experience for all viewers. But possibly our turned-on T. V. generation has also learned to tune out to a degree unknown and unnecessary in the non-electric generation. If they have experienced total sense involvement, perhaps they are also prey to an equal and opposite reaction. In an environment in which the cumulative decibel readings for one day must surely exceed those amassed in all of the centuries preceding the invention of the steam engine, every human auditory apparatus has had to become increasingly selective. Under constant bombardment of the senses we develop a hierarchy of attention, and learn, when necessary, to turn off the imput entirely. The ability to turn off the sense volume completely has become a requirement of life in the electronic age.

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[6] McLuhan and Fiore, op. cit., p. 63.

[7] McLuhan, op. cit., p. 357.

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[8] James Steel Smith. "Simultaneousness," English Journal, 57 (May, 1968), p. 696.

Turning out may be only one aspect of electronic media assault. McLuhan proposes that the effect of T. V. upon the totality of sensory imput has altered the visually dominated sense of balance of the "Gutenberg World" and our young are therefore out of step in print oriented schools. Smith feels that some sort of sense rebalance or discrimination affects us all. "Ambiguity, blur, is one of the risks of living in a culture where more than one set of mental pores are often open at the same time...We have all developed, at least in some areas, a lack of mental and emotional intensity, an ability to fail to register experience."[9] We seem to have developed passivity. Rather than cope with a division of concentration, we sit in electric mid-stream and let the current flow around us. Indeed, our attention, much sought and valued by those who sponsor the programming which inundates our senses is like that Scarlet Pimpernel of those olden days of print--elusive. We must be wooed. Our attention is invited, solicited, titilated, and coaxed. Are we becoming accustomed to being pandered to and pampered? "I won't pay attention unless you deserve it and keep me interested." The hard sell went by the wayside because we had learned to tune out. The soft sell has become a booby trap.

What about the "now" generation which has been surrounded by this plethora of sensation from the cradle. A tune-out mechanism, the age old prerogative of the dreamer, comes as standard equipment on every five year old model who passes through the school house door. How do we de-activate the device? We may have to take a clue from the pro's of show biz with whom we are in competition. Note: The high school graduate has been exposed to 15,000 hours of T. V. time but only 10,800 hours of school time.[10] OUR STUDENT PERHAPS CANNOT AND PROBABLY WILL NOT FOCUS HIS ATTENTION UNLESS WE WOO AND WIN HIM WITH A GOOD PERFORMANCE. The time has passed when we can assume that students of any age know how to or are willing to concentrate on that which they do not find interesting.

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[9] Ibid., pp. 698-699.

We are facing as great a change in outlook, receptivity, and learning patterns in students who have grown up totally in the age of T. V. as those who first matured totally surrounded by literacy. Probably the change is even greater due to the sudden and almost complete accessibility of T. V. and its ability to condition from the cradle. Are we, as a consequence of media impact, losing the ability to concentrate? *** Is it important? *** Is it inevitable? *** Will this ability to focus become as obsolete as that of identifying an enemy by scent? *** Educators may not only have to decide if their students are now perceiving in a more synthesized way or are losing the ability to focus on one or two sets of sensory input, but also, if reversal of these tendencies is either desirable or possible. Whatever the decision, change in the traditional school organization and approach to teaching and learning is a necessity. The captive audience of the schoolroom, conditioned to ennui in education, bludgeoned into malleability by grades, and resigned to the notion of the school as the only key to learning and success, has revolted.

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[10] John M. Culkin, S. J. "A Schoolman's Guide to Marshall McLuhan," The Saturday Review, 50 (March 18, 1967), p. 71.

Changes in the traditional school organization aimed at dealing with the new learner--non-graded classrooms, team teaching, teaching machines, individual learning situations, and the game approach[11]--are not really new in the field of education, but their increased popularity indicates an attempt to remove the status quo stigma from elementary and high schools. The changes in foreign language instruction in the past few years puts those of us in that area well along the road to McLuhan's happy hunting ground. The audio-lingual approach, language laboratory, and programmed material for self-instruction adhere to his doctrine in most respects. It is possible for the foreign language student to become involved, self-motivated and self-taught on a multi-sensory basis. We can aim for the day when all foreign language students will be able to learn in a natural way in a computer controlled, complete foreign language environment.

But what to do 'till the cybernaut comes. Marshall McLuhan is calm and cool because he has the secret. Whether or not we choose to follow his complete route through the looking glass, he has blueprinted the change in student perception and resultant educational requirements. Whether or not we are happy about the change, whether or not we think that it is an improvement, McLuhan has something to tell us about the electric beast which have gnawed away at the neat, ordered bag of all-knowledge which was once the exclusive property of the educational establishment. We may suspect sometimes that this pied piper is leading us up the garden path, ("I don't necessarily agree with everything I say," says McLuhan), but his message for those who now purport to cultivate the field of education is HOW, this minute, to adapt what we have at our disposal, HOW to reach the turned on or tuned out student in the present school set-up in which we must function. "Cool it."

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[11] Elliot Carson. "Games in the Classroom," Saturday Review, 50 (April 15, 1967) pp. 62-64.

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WEDNESDAY 10:00 A.M., A 1987 REPORT ON FRENCH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Wednesday 10:00 A. M. is privileged time for fifth graders in our Iowa City Elementary Schools, the time of a special kind of French lesson and tests. It has been so now for three years, since it was in 1984 that the spectacular change occurred in foreign language teaching and learning, when our schools, like most in the nation, turned to Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) and became equipped with the new mass produced, compact 9010 computer model. We remember that the first bold experiment in this field began only twenty years ago with the use of the IBM 7010 system at the college level in the German language.[1] The bulky, very costly complex has since been replaced by our present system, which is a two-part equipment of a fairly small size, easy to handle, while it offers miraculous efficiency. Part one is installed in a room that looks very much like the now obsolete, traditional language laboratories, with fifty booths, each one consisting essentially of an operation box, elaborated keyboard, T. V. screen and sensitive writing tablet. It may be noted that every classroom in the school is flanked by such a lab, since CAI functions for the benefit of not only foreign languages but most of other modern subjects taught in elementary schools.

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[1] The experiment was conducted at the Thomas J. Watson Research Center, International Business Machines Corporation, and reported by E. N. Adams, A. W. Morrison and J. M. Reddy in the Modern Language Journal (January 1968).

The IBM 9010 provides what FLES students have come to call fondly FBM time (Fly By Myself). During these CAI Wednesday morning thirty minute sessions, and as early as their second semester of French, fifth graders indeed develop a stimulating feeling of achievement and independence. They can perform a multiple language operation by themselves, they can take pleasant tests as well as receive immediate and accurate information from the computer concerning their performance. But above all, they can do individual drilling and be corrected at the proper time, mistakes being gently but precisely indicated by an orange light blinking at the right moment. A special feature of this recent model of the computer allows different pace of all spoken words and accompanying projection pictures without sound or intonation distortion. Thus, the less alert or slow students are not disadvantaged.

Part two of the equipment (which will be dealt with later) is in the classroom itself. It is reserved for the exclusive pedagogical use of the teacher.

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The main tasks of the 9010, which are testing, grading after scoring, monitoring, summarizing as well as storing data, are symbolized by the letters TGMS or TGM which happen to be the initials of our highly respected educator, Theodore Gabriel McSawyer, whose programmed FLES materials have not been surpassed to this date. The numerous advantages of the TGM method, its emphasis on accuracy and integration of all items have been often praised. Less known, however, but nonetheless as important, is what has been named the fifth dimension in FLES instruction, the teaching of culture. Enormous progress has been made in the teaching of the four skills, culture and civilization, but these had never been given true consideration and the place they deserve until now, in spite of being recommended in early FLES methods books, such as Mary Finocchiaro's and Margaret Eriksson's, which were published in the sixties, and the 1965 report of the National FLES Committee on Culture. In the TGM method, not only are all scenes filmed in French homes and schools, but the culture items are constantly re-evaluated and brought up to date. The (Y) process which permits recordings of adult voices to be automatically changed into children's is of course an additional improvement--less costly, we are told, than trying to find French children who could, while acting out dialogues, speak the right words in a natural and convincing way. Also, the TGM materials are free of the too many civilization mistakes which were found until recently in manuals printed by the best publishing companies: for instance, French children eating at the dinner table with their left hand on the lap instead of the table, as table manners require in France; or Jean and Catherine's glasses filled with wine; or errors in types of gestures, clothing; or shocking mistakes in kinds of architecture such as guillotine windows in old provincial French houses. Incredibly enough, these textbooks used the same background of houses for both French and

and Spanish scenes! Because so many little errors can be accumulated in drawings, thus giving the students false information, illustrations other than those done by a guided foreign artist, have been banished from foreign language books. Photographs are more reliable.

In brief, teaching of French culture presents a two-fold aspect. On the one hand, it deals accurately with the usual items of the present foreign way of life: on the other hand it is intended as a means of counteracting our matter of fact, technical life and attempting to provide youngsters with general esthetic education. Poetry does that especially well. It does it with a limited, integrated language, using a selected high frequency vocabulary and basic patterns, adapted to age groups and their proficiency levels. Poems are short with rhymes and traditional French meters. They are meant to be read and/or memorized and recited in a loud voice, with several students participating.

An essential pedagogical footnote needs to be added at this point. It concerns a method designed to help us keep up-to-date with the teaching of contemporary culture. For all their excellency, the TBM materials utilizing current significant cultural events for dialogue topics, have to stop at the end of the book, while civilization goes on and must be studied, even by fifth and sixth graders. A few of us remember, for example, an event that took place in 1962 when French minister of culture André Malraux brought the Mona Lisa for a visit to two American museums, and was welcomed by Jacqueline Kennedy. The detailed story was easily woven into series of simple dialogues and sketches, crystallizing and grouping quite a number of cultural items, all the easier to be understood by children, since they had read the accounts and seen countless pictures of La Joconde in magazines. A few of the items were names of important people and places, such as Leonardo da Vinci, Jacqueline Kennedy, André Malraux, Musée du Louvre, Philadelphia Museum of Art; concept and meaning of a museum of art, of esthetic values; description of the portrait in the painting. The vocabulary was basic, reviewing numbers and dates (Quel âge a La Joconde? Où habite-t-elle? Est-ce qu'elle voyage quelquefois? Combien d'années y a-t-il dans un siècle? Dans quatre siècles? etc...). Olympics in Grenoble in 1968, watched on T. V. throughout the country, offered a jumping-off point for a good geography lesson on that part of France, on seasons, winter sports. More recently, the long awaited opening of the tunnel under the English Channel at the Straights of Dover between France and England constituted an excellent cultural item for studying new means of transportation and for acquainting pupils with first elements of economics within their vocabulary and syntax range, of course.

But only a few teachers and therefore, a handful of students, had the privilege of using this kind of supplementary materials, even if they could be helped in their difficult creative endeavor by sample models found in the TGM books. Now it is available to all FLES teachers of French thanks to the newly created FLESIS (FLES Information Service). A specialized team of teachers is watching at all times for significant world events, selecting preferably those that concern France and the USA, that lend themselves to comments on ideas of friendship and cooperation between the two countries. Within four weeks, they convert the event into dialogues and stories accompanied by recordings and filmstrips. These are prepared for three levels: FC 02, FC 03, FC 04 (French Culture for respectively second, third and fourth year), to be used at the end of the first semester level or the beginning of the second semester. They are then distributed to the schools which subscribe to this service. At present, the FLESIS team is working at culturally packaging an important "fifteen-day old happening," which was the first realization of the bold New York School Exchange Plan. Two hundred fifty sixth graders flew to visit with Parisian families for one week, while two hundred fifty French children came back with them to spend the second week in the New York area. The New York-Paris two-hour trip made this experience possible.

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Let us come back, however, to our Wednesday morning session and follow the activities of Cathy, a girl in the fifth grade, who is in her second semester of French. The class is quiet. The students are working on individual projects: some are reading, like the students of Spanish (who take tests at different times), others, like Cathy, are engaged in an FMS session. Cathy goes to a large box which looks like a candy or cigarette machine. It is perforated like a beehive by hundredsof compartments. As far as French is concerned, it contains forty-five FBM packages fifty times, or twenty-two hundred fifty items. Each one of the fifteen consists of three series: 1A, 1A', 1B, 2A, 2A', 2B, etc....A' is an alternate to A; B is a step higher than A, and is designed for students whose grades reported by the computer are classified as good or excellent, in a scale of five marks: P for Poor, I for Insufficient, V for Average, G for Good and E for Excellent. According to the general usage in the elementary schools, only five small packs will be used the first semester, since a little more time is needed to reacquaint pupils with our precise language techniques, as well as automatic handling of computer switches. But ten tests are given in the second semester. Sixth graders will take six and twelve tests respectively during the first and second semesters.

Cathy pushes a button and gets her pack. It is number 10, corresponding to approximately the sixth week of instruction in the second semester. Number 10 consists essentially of a minitape and a microfilm. (After she is through with this 30-minute experience, after all results have been processed and stored on one card, she will return the card and place it in a filing cabinet under her name. She will also drop the used package in a computer slot where it will be guided immediately to its initial position among the 2250 compartments.

Cathy is ready to begin the FMS Session. The first exercise always starts with repetition of words. Today Cathy repeats vocabulary featuring the sounds (ẽ), (õ) and (o). To the thirty-six such words she already knows, eight new ones are added. They belong to a text and questions she will hear for the first time in Exercise II. They are: *Lyon, Bordeaux, Amiens, soudain, chemin, vont, partons, allons*. At the same time a map of France with names of the main cities is projected on the small individual booth screen. As Cathy pronounces the second syllable of "*Bordeaux*," the orange light blinks; the word is then pronounced again by the model voice; Cathy repeats it and this time it is with the correct non-diphthongized (o). In the next part of the same exercise, she has to repeat a number of other sentences such as *Je vais à pied*; *ils vont à pied; je vais à Bordeaux*; *comment y allez-vous?; j'y vais en auto*, etc. The sentences are grouped according to their structures; often they are introduced in pattern practice exercises. Cathy made no mistakes. But had she, a large orange light would have appeared on the right-hand side of the keyboard, followed by the repeated sentences. The small orange light would have blinked just before the word she had mispronounced. Part C of Exercise I deals with a review of the present tense of the verbs *partir* and *aller*, as well as the close future (*je vais partir*; *je vais aller*), a tense which is now included in all verb conjugations. Added also are two aspects of those verbs, *je veux* and *je peux* plus infinitives. The drill is in the form of the usual repetition and substitution pattern practice. Both verbs were introduced last week with the chapter on *Transports d'autre-fois et Transports* d'aujourd'hui.

But now comes the anticipated moment. An evaluation card pops up behind the glass panel, showing the grade Cathy received for the first exercise and the number of times she had to repeat a word or sentence. The letter is "E" for Excellent. Under Ex I, A, Words, the figure 1 appears. (An "X" would indicate four wrong utterances.)

Cathy looks forward to Exercise II. (Next year, when she learns how to write in French, she will have a dictée at this time. After she is through with the few lines of writing, the screen will display the correct text, with the incorrect words or passages underlined. She will then rewrite them on her special tablet, which is photographed from underneath. The evaluation card, bearing the grade for Ex. II will pop up a few seconds later.) Fifth graders' Ex. II, however, consists of listening to a story or poem and answering questions. If the student feels uncertain about a sentence or a word, he pushes an "H"-shaped button ("H" for Help). If three punches or more are recorded, and/or two being in the first third of the text, it will be read again, this time at a slightly slower pace. Here is the French text Cathy hears:

Part I. Trois petits chiens quittent Paris
Le premier dit:

Pour aller à Amiens
Moi, je pars par le train.
Mais le train dit soudain:

"Un pɇtit chien dans un train?
Un pɇtit chien dans un train?
Mais cɇ n'est pas bien!"

Le deuxième dit:

Pour aller à Bordeaux
Moi, je pars en auto.
Mais l'auto à ces mots:
"Un pɇtit chien en auto?
Un pɇtit chien en auto?
Oh, oh, oh, oh!"

Le troisième dit:

Pour aller jusqu'à Lyon
Moi, je pars en avion.
Mais l'avion lui répond:
"Un pɇtit chien en avion?
Un pɇtit chien en avion?
Non, non, non, non!"
Alors les trois pɇtits chiens
Vont à pied sur le chɇmin.

Part II of Exercise II features two series of questions, "a" and "b," while the map of France is supplemented with little signs and drawings designed to help the student remember the details of of the story and concentrate on the correct use of the language. (number 1 (the first little dog) appears near Amiens with the picture of a train, number 2 with a car near Bordeau, number 3 with a plane whose destination is Lyon.)

In Part IIa, there are eight questions pertaining to the story:

1. Qui va à Bordeaux? Le premier, le deuxième, ou le troisième petit chien?
2. Qui va à Lyon?
3. Qui va à Amiens?
4. Pour aller à Lyon, est-ce que le troisième petit chien veut partir en avion?
5. Pour aller à Lyon, est-ce que le troisième petit chien peut partir en avion?
6. Pour aller à Amiens, est-ce que le premier petit chien veut partir en auto?
7. Est-ce qu'il peut partir par le train?
8. Comment partent les trois petits chiens?

Part IIb also has eight questions: they relate to the geography of France, the first elements of which the children began to study the week previous to this exercise:

1. Comment s'appelle le grand aéroport de Paris? (Picture of Orly airport.)
2. Où est situé Lyon?
3. Est-ce le Rhône est un fleuve?
4. Est-ce que la Seine est aussi un fleuve?
5. Est-ce que Marseille est un fleuve?

6. Nommez une ville importante située sur la Seine.

7. Dans quelle mer se jette la Seine?

8. Dans quelle mer se jette le Rhône?

That's the end of Number 10 FEM Part II. Cathy missed two answers in section a. The computer has recorded and analyzed every phase of her performance. Her card shows a "G" as a grade for the whole activity. Other more subtle indications are given for the teacher, who will learn (or rather have confirmation of) Cathy's weak and strong points. Cathy has performed quite rapidly; she has eight minutes left, and she has the choice of either stopping and going back to her room after returning pack number 10 to its place, or beginning the memorization of a poem. Incidentally, number 11 and subsequent packs will include an Exercise III, consisting of a corrected reading test of a continuous text. Fifth grade students are required to memorize and recite five of the ten short teaching poems studied. Trois petits chiens quittent Paris, however, will be a class project with several voices participating; Cathy will select another text.

It could be the one she will hear next Friday at the afternoon session. On Fridays, the daily thirty-minute French session is divided into a quarter of an hour in the morning at which time the class usually engages in educational games in the foreign language and a fifteen-minute period in the afternoon. Students who achieve only P or I have a chance to take the alternate test which is much easier. Good and excellent students are recommended to take a series for additional credit, or use that time for memorizing additional poems. The text for number 10 part B is also a teaching poem. It is made of two quatrains; the three lines recited by the student are often pronounced syllables, the class' line is an alexandrine verse.

Il y a un tunnel

E. (Elève) Sous le plus haut mont d'Europ~~e~~, le Mont Blanc
Il y a un tunnel pour automobiles.
Ce tunnel util~~e~~, comment s'appell~~e~~-t-il?
C. (Classe) Ce beau tunnel s'appell~~e~~ Le Tunnel du Mont Blanc.
E. Sur douze kilomètr~~e~~s,--c'est un~~e~~ bell~~e~~ distance
Le géant des Alp~~e~~s a été percé.
Ainsi les autos peuv~~e~~nt plus vit~~e~~ passer.
C. De France en Italie et d'Italie en France.

Twelve questions follow, and these are related to the geography of that part of France. They also pertain to the climate, skiing and the metric system.

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The computerized automatic scoring and grading is the first great revolution in FLES teaching. The second one, which concerns the teacher's task, came about with the invention of the "Correction Mike." The Mike constitutes Part II of the 9010 system and is installed in the classroom itself. This latest development is just coming out of the experimental phase and seems to have reached a near-perfection stage. Our profession will be forever indebted to the Bell and Haskins Laboratories (and Pierre Delattre especially) for their research on formants and the reduction of each one of the word sounds to a minimum of three basic formants, the synthesized reconstitution of which can be reproduced by machine. Each French sound pronounced by the teacher, however, approximate or poor, i.e. not exceeding the low percentage of 15% accuracy, acts as a signal for the 9010 which will make up the correct sound and release it within a hundredth of a second. Thus, phones of three thousand basic French words can be electronically reproduced.

And what is the role of the teacher in these procedures? There is now a sense of liberation on the part of the teacher. Although some of the basic language skills are now in the domain of the machine, the teacher is free to concentrate on the more creative aspects of language learning: motivating each child, individualizing instruction, providing supplementary materials, conducting discussions, planning and preparing culminating experiences (assemblies, programs), arranging for foreign travel and communication. The teacher then becomes a resource person and no longer simply a drillmaster.

Conclusions to the facts described in this report are self evident. Thanks to the CAI, thanks to its essential elements, the automatic grading and the correction mike, many more fifth graders like Cathy can learn and enjoy faster and better; they can have excellent instruction in the first two crucial years of their foreign language learning. Such is the daily miracle in our 5th and 6th grade classes. It is interesting to note that eighty percent of the students go on for their six years of secondary school French, thus freeing the universities of ninety percent of their beginning foreign language courses.

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168

CONCLUSION

The FLES Committee of the AATF in the Report for 1968 has attempted to concentrate most of its discussion on what can be expected in FLES programs in future decades. This Report can also serve as a re-assessment of present programs as thoughts are projected into the future. It is the hope of the Committee that the areas researched in this report will prove to be of assistance to both the professionals and non-professionals involved in or contemplating FLES programs. The research and conclusions that have been reached in many studies made relative to FLES will certainly provoke the establishment of more programs in the years ahead. Support will also be forthcoming from the national government as the need for second language learning becomes more urgent for closer contact with all nations of the world.

As this committee has been active in FLES work for almost a decade, so too are there other committees on a national basis, such as the FLES Committee of ACTFL, and various state and local committees, vitally interested in the beginning of language instruction in the elementary grades. The results of a National Symposium on FLES, sponsored by ACTFL, held in November in Minnesota, will certainly receive wide coverage as to the purpose for gathering of experts from different disciplines with relation to their place in FLES programs and vice versa. In the work of these committees, the books and articles that have been written concerning FLES, it is interesting to note that many of the members of committees, authors of books and articles, are not actively involved in FLES instruction. However, they all have a great stake in it by becoming actively involved to assure success in such programs.

Undoubtedly, the future will bring more problems, new problems that will have to be resolved if our nation is to continue in the educational lead. It has often been stated that without problems there would be no progress. One of the greatest problems today and in the very near future is bilingual education, the reason for devoting an entire section to this topic. The government has recognized the problem by the enactment of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968--Title VII, Elementary and Secondary Act. It is estimated that 100,000 bilingual teachers will be needed by 1970 at both the elementary and secondary levels. Another problem, one that will always exist, is teacher training. But for the future, this training will have to change radically because of technology which, from year-to-year, becomes more and more refined. The business of education has always been marked by its resistance to innovation; however, this resistance too will have to change to adaptability to scientific discoveries, not as response to a fad, but as a necessity to stay in the mainstream of a constantly changing world. Learning does not only come from books.

The year's work that has gone into the preparation of this report has been an enriching experience because it has afforded the members of the committee the opportunity to speculate on ideas for the future. It is hoped that readers of this report will share with us the spark that has been kindled by gazing into the future years of FLES and to effect reality from ideals described in this eighth annual report.

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